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ABSTRACT

This volume of a publication devoted to providing
 ideas and guidance for teachers of English as a second language
 includes articles on teaching reading, vocabulary, pronunciation,
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Volume 7

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DICTIONARY USE IN ESL COURSES

by Dr. Kenneth Croft

A foreign student in the United States for secondary or higher education finds that an all-English desk dictionary is one of his best friends. Actually, he can hardly survive in his academic training without one.

Back home the typical foreign student developed the habit of consulting a bi-

lingual dictionary (English and his native language) to answer questions about words and usage. But for pursuing courses in American educational institutions this habit should be broken as soon as possible; he must be encouraged to switch to an all-English dictionary. As a rule, the contexts for presenting information about English words in bilingual dictionaries are hopelessly inadequate. Furthermore, the use of a bilingual dictionary reinforces a long-standing notion on the part of many students: that there is a one-to-one correspondence between English words on the one hand and words in the students' native language on the other — a completely false notion.

All students of English as a second language (ESL) know that a dictionary contains meanings of words and correct spellings, and they consult it mostly for these purposes. Relatively few of them draw on the other useful information to be found there. A unit of study based on dictionary usage at the beginning of a reading and/or composition course is well worth the time and effort. Even the alphabetic principle in dictionary arrangement is not entirely clear to some

CONTENTS

Dictionary Use in ESL Courses	
by Kenneth Croft	Page 1
The Importance of Identifying the Tense Carrier in Simple Affirmative Sentences	
by Yao Shen	Page 3
The Tolleson Six School Reading Project, a Revolutionary Approach	
by Grace A. Blossom	Page 6
Intensive and Extensive Reading	
by Vuki Tangitau	Page 7
Using Crossword Puzzles in TESL	
by Kelly Harris, Jr.	Page 10
Pronoun Acrostic	Page 12
Functions of BE in English	
by Alice C. Pack	Page 14
Reading Instruction for Native and Second Language Students	
by Sid Jensen	Page 20

students, especially those from Asian countries and the Middle East.

A study unit devoted to familiarizing ESL students with the dictionary can be conducted best by means of a workbook on study skills, with all members of the class using the same dictionary. A good workbook explains what the dictionary contains and how the contents are arranged; it also provides exercises for practice in locating specific information: spelling, pronunciation, syllable division,

dictionary consultation is greater than the American's. -

Inasmuch as I have to look in a dictionary to check word divisions, I can do no less than insist that my students do likewise. Some ESL students (but not all, by any means) are so intent on keeping their right margins straight, they divide words at the end of the line too often and, in many cases, incorrectly. Because of the average ESL student's "shaky" command of the language, it is almost impossible for him to internalize the rules for English word division completely.

Dr. Kenneth Croft is at present Professor of English and Anthropology at California State University, San Francisco. He has been active in TESL programs and TESL teacher-training for many years. Prior to his appointment in California, he was head of materials development at the American Language Institute, Georgetown University. Dr. Croft has published widely in the areas of structural linguistics, linguistic anthropology, and English as a second language. His latest work is *READINGS ON ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE: FOR TEACHERS AND TEACHER-TRAINEES* (Winthrop Publishers, 1972).

derivation, meaning, part of speech, usage, synonyms, and the like.

In general an ESL student goes to the dictionary for the same reasons as an American student, but the questions he wants answered are usually less sophisticated than those of the American. Whereas the American student may decide to look up *inscrutable* to see if the ending is *ible* or *able*, the ESL student is more likely to look up a word like *fitting* to see if it contains one or two *t*'s. Spelling rules can be and are learned, but I hear a frequent comment that it is easier to look in the dictionary than remember the rules. Also because he lacks security in the language, particularly in reading and writing, the ESL student's need for frequent dic-

Capitalization of proper nouns, a lesser problem, can be dealt with by referring to the dictionary, too, and this should be encouraged. If for no other reason than accurate spelling the ESL teacher can perform a valuable service to the student by helping him develop "the dictionary habit."

Provided the ESL student does not switch back and forth from one dictionary to another or switch around from one to another, he can usually learn the conventions for marking pronunciation in a single dictionary and make good use of them. At least he can locate the syllable of a word with the heaviest stress, and by studying the pronunciation key he can learn to recognize the various indicators of vowel and consonant quality. However, in quite a few cases, the dictionary symbols tend to confuse the student, unless he has guidance from a native speaker of English, because some of the sounds marked are not in the student's repertory. In his non-fluent command of the language he substitutes the nearest equivalent from his native language for English sounds.

More so than for spelling and pronunciation, the ESL student values the dictionary for the meanings of words given. Using the same dictionary all the time is

(continued on page 8)

THE IMPORTANCE OF IDENTIFYING THE TENSE CARRIER IN SIMPLE AFFIRMATIVE SENTENCES

by Yao Shen

There are two tenses in English and two only. They are the present tense and the past tense. Tense refers to the present or past form of the word. For example.

WORD	PRESENT	PAST
be	am, is are	was were
have	have, has	had
do	do, does	did
will	will	would
will	will, wills	willed
can	can	could
can	can, cans	canned

Tense and time are not the same. There are three references to time: present, past, and future. Tense and time in the same sentence do not always have a one-to-one relationship. For example.

TENSE	TIME	TENSE	TIME
1. Is he there	right now?	present	present
2. Was he there	yesterday?	past	past
3. Is he there	all the time?	present	pres

TENSE	TIME	TENSE	TIME
1. Is he there	right now?	present	present
2. Was he there	yesterday?	past	past
3. Is he there	all the time?	present	present, past, future
4. Is he leaving	this moment?	present	present
5. Is he leaving	tomorrow?	present	future
6. Was he leaving	tomorrow?	past	future
7. Was he leaving	today?	past	present
8. Was he leaving	yesterday?	past	past
9. Has he patience	all the time?	present	present, past, future
10. Does he have patience	all the time?	present	present, past, future

The purpose here is not to take up the relation between tense and time but to demonstrate the importance of identifying the word which carries tense in a sentence. The word which carries tense will be referred to as the tense carrier. Two kinds of sentences are dealt with here. They are the simple affirmative yes-no questions and the simple affirmative statements.

Grammar books frequently divide yes-no questions such as the first eight sentences

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given above into two groups. In sentences 1-3, *be* is the verb (V) with the subject (S) of the sentence following it: V+S. In questions 4-8, *be* is the auxiliary (Aux), followed by the subject: Aux+S. This dual label of *be* as the verb in V+S and the auxiliary in Aux+S is troublesome not only to the non-native speaker learning English but also to the native speaker of English attempting to understand the operations of the grammar in his own language. And teachers of English as a second language have the added burden of choosing to teach *Has he patience?* (9) in V+S or *Does he have patience?* (10) in Aux+S.

The entire problem perhaps can be simplified by remembering that in simple yes-no questions; the tense carrier, whether it is the verb in V+S or the auxiliary in Aux+S, precedes the subject: T+S. For example.

V + S --- T + S

Is	he	there?
Was	he	there?
Has	he	patience?

Aux + S -- T + S

Is	he	leaving?
Was	he	leaving?
Does	he	have patience?

In fact, this T+S extends to simple yes-no questions that begin with a modal.

Modal + S -- T

			S
Can	you	do it?	
Could	you	do it?	
Will	he	come?	
Would	he	come?	

T+S also operates in yes-no questions in other expanded predicates, since an expanded predicate begins with either an auxiliary or a modal. A few examples are as follows

Aux+S -- T	+	S
Are		they done?
Were		they done?
Are		they being done?
Were		they being done?
Has		he done it?
Had		he done it?
Has		it been done?
Had		it been done?
Does		he do it?
Did		he do it?

Modal+S -- T	+	S
Will		it be done?
Could		it have been done?

T+S also applies to elliptical yes-no questions. In elliptical questions, the tense carrier which is the verb precedes the subject.

V + S ---	T	+	S
	Is		he?
	Was		he?
	Has		he?
	Had		he?
	Does		he?
	Did		he?
	Can		he?
	Could		he?
	Will		he?
	Would		he?

There is a similarity among V+S, Aux+S, and Modal+S. It is that the verb, the auxiliary, or the modal is the tense carrier.

V + S

Aux + S

Modal + S

T + S

The importance of identifying the tense carrier in statements is of equal significance. In statements, the tense carrier, whether it is a verb, an auxiliary, or a modal, follows the subject: S+T.

S + V ---S	+	T
He	is.	
He	has.	
He	does.	
He	is	there.
He	was	there.
He	has	patience.
He	had	patience.

In this way a student can be guided by the deep grammar of T+S for yes-no questions and S+T for statements. The student's language would have not only the necessary tense carrier but also the tense carrier in its relation to the position of the subject of the sentence. An understanding of the necessity of the tense carrier in its positional relation to the subject of the sentence could help him produce simple affirmative yes-no questions and simple affirmative statements in acceptable grammar.

S + Aux --S +	T
He	is leaving.
He	was leaving.
It	is gone.
It	was gone.
He	has come.
He	had come.
It	has been done.
It	had been done.
He	does have patience.
He	did have patience.

S + Modal -S + T

You can	do it.
You could	do it.
He will	come.
He would	come.
It could	be coming.
It would	have been done.

The similarity among S+V, S+Aux, and S+Modal is that the verb, the auxiliary or the modal carries the tense in the sentence.

S + V	
S + Aux	S + T
S + Modal	

Rather than teaching students to distinguish verbs, auxiliaries, and modals, it might be more profitable to make them pay attention to the word which carries the tense in the sentence. If the sentence is a yes-no question, the tense carrier precedes the subject; if the sentence is a statement, the tense carrier follows the subject.

Question	T + S
Statement	S + T

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THE TOLLESON SIX SCHOOL READING PROJECT A REVOLUTIONARY APPROACH

by GRACE A. BLOSSOM

Last school year Tolleson Union High School, Tolleson, Arizona, and the five elementary schools that surround it, put into practice a revolutionary approach to help all students read on or above grade level. It required no new texts, no highly specialized teacher training and very little cash outlay. Stated in its simplest terms the teachers were asked to accept the following concepts:

1. That the English language, itself, not racial origin or economic conditions is the cause of reading retardation in the upper grades.
2. That a shift from the use of conversational English to literary English or non-conversational English takes place in the text books at about the fourth grade level.
3. That every teacher of academic subjects, not just the reading teacher, must help students cope with the language of that subject.
4. That regular grade level texts be used in place of high interest, low vocabulary level materials. In other words, bring the student up to the text rather than the material down to the student.

Starting with these four points as the underlying philosophy of the new approach the teachers were asked to do the following:

1. Prepare a glossary or little dictionary of the terms deemed difficult in each day's lesson.
2. Define the selected terms in the simplest English possible giving only a definition for the item as it is used in the text.
3. Give each student in the class a copy of the glossary for the day's lesson and spend a few minutes of class time pronouncing each entry item and noting the meaning. This procedure was kept to a maximum of ten minutes of class time.

When the year finished and we looked at the results of the pilot project we realized how successful it had been. On the high

school level the entire freshman class had averaged two years six months gain in reading comprehension as measured by Gates MacGinitie Reading Tests. But there were other results that we believe were even more important:

1. The daily glossary sheets seemed to identify the problem as being the difficultness of the English language rather than student stupidity.
2. They also seemed, as Mr. Tim Prichard of Fowler Elementary School remarked, concrete evidence of the teacher's willingness to help.
3. By identifying the "adversary" as the English language student self image was improved.
4. We had fewer discipline problems and fewer drop outs.
5. By keeping all freshman students informed as to their progress in improving their reading ability in terms they could fully understand, we seemed to develop a better teacher-student relationship.

While the preparation of a glossary sheet for each lesson from the text is time consuming the teachers knew that next year it would be only a matter of reproducing the sheets for further use. An interesting side effect of the writing of glossary material was the increased awareness on the part of the teacher of the difficulty of the text. It was not at all uncommon for a teacher to remark, "I never realized how difficult this book is." While we started out to help the bilingual students we found that English speaking students made the greatest gain in reading comprehension with the native bilinguals close behind. The few students who came in from Mexico made the least gain.

A more complete report including the computerized results of the student and teacher questionnaire may be had upon request from Dr. Weldon P. Shotstall, Superintendent of Public Education, State Department, Phoenix, Arizona.

INTENSIVE AND EXTENSIVE READING

by Vuki Tangitau

Reading is a highly complex process and it demands the knowledge of correct pronunciation, word recognition, comprehension skills, speed of reading as well as confidence on the part of the learner. According to John Waldman, we are motivated to read in order to discover how

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other people live, feel and act. We sometimes read to understand the past and project into the future. Insights we get from learning about other lives and other periods besides our own will add to our self knowledge.^{1*}

Bearing Waldman's thought in mind it is therefore necessary to recommend that all language teachers should make occasions to give the second language learner opportunities to practice and imitate new sounds correctly. The teachers should look for and commend good pronunciation, correct intonation and rhythm, speed and good diction so that improvement and progress could be effected. The learner should be encouraged to pronounce sounds that are new to him and also to be critical of his own speech and pronunciation during his daily language activities. Drills and self awareness in-so-far as good articulation is concerned, should be pursued and cultivated throughout the entire reading course.

But for the reading activity to be a profitable and pleasurable learning process it is perhaps necessary to iterate the fact that the learner should be the most important thing in the whole reading program. The

materials chosen for the reading should be considered in terms of his needs, his interest and his level of reading ability. Dacanay emphasized this very point when she wrote:

The principle of sequencing units of subject matter should be observed, that is from the familiar to the new. The subject matter, presented in meaningful situations and in small doses at first, should have interest and content appeal for the learner.^{2*}

The reading materials, as suggested, should be carefully selected and graded to give the learner an interesting and challenging experience of English vocabulary and constructions. There should be, as in the case of the Church Middle Schools in Tonga, class readers, supplementary readers, books for private reading, local and overseas newspapers, posters and advertisements to aid the teaching of reading as a whole. Elliot saw the value in this when he recommended that:

the reading material must inevitably be simplified-that is to say, it must be within the linguistic range of pupils at different levels of the language. It must either be specially written within a precise range, or texts in "full-that is, unlimited English must be re-written in simplified versions."^{3*}

Before embarking on the types of reading that I am to discuss I would like to say something more pertaining to the problems involving reading. This is because the greatest difficulty the learner meets in learning to read a foreign language concerns the language itself. The language problems, as pointed out by Sutaria, that the learner is likely to encounter in his reading:

2* Fe R. Dacanay: *Techniques and Procedures in Second Language Teaching* (Philippine, 1967), p. 240.

3* A.V.P. Elliot: "Teaching the Printed Word. Reading and Literature," *Teaching English As a Second Language* (New York, 1965), p. 281.

1* John Waldman: *Reading With Speed and Confidence* (New York, 1972), p.4.

likely to encounter in his reading:

are identical with those he meets in listening and those that he meets in reading orally. . . . He tends to transfer the sounds, the stress and intonation patterns, the rhythm, the grammatical structure, and even some of the vocabulary and style of his native tongue.^{4*}

A second language teacher who is aware of these difficulties may adapt his reading program to the needs of his class. Moreover his approach to reading, as influenced by this awareness, would be geared towards assisting the learner to gain profitable experiences from the effort made. Reading then, should be regarded as a motivation and a morale booster employed principally for the purpose of familiarizing the learner with the strange mechanics of the target language, expanding his interest as well as giving him an education. Both the instructor and the instructed should review it as an important process primarily in relation to what they are doing at the moment and what they want to do in the future.

At this stage I need not go into a detailed discussion of the basic problems, basic skills and preliminary drills necessary for reading. I take it for granted that all are conscious of the need for the instructor to be aware of these existing problems as well as the great demand for a reasonably sound reading programme. But to the English language teachers of Tonga, to which this paper is directly addressed, I would like to discuss two major sub-divisions of the subject in discussion in terms of what Mary Finnochiaro called intensive and extensive reading.

In Intensive reading as the term indicates, each vocabulary and structural item is explained and made part of the student's active language; pronunciation and intonation are stressed; each concept or allusion is clarified. In Extensive reading, the principal aim is comprehension. Pupils are trained to get the meaning primarily from the context although

some common vocabulary items may be developed for active use.^{5*}

The intensive reading as defined above is principally an activity to help furnish the learner with a better understanding of the language. That understanding would only be accomplished if what is given does meet the needs of the learner.

Necessity comes first. The child in a home environment or in a kindergarten is driven to adopt the prevailing form of communication in order to share in the activities around him and thus be happy and contented rather than lonely and miserable.^{6*}

It should be a means of motivating the learner's interest to study the language and also to assist in establishing his confidence and desire to make use of this new tool for gathering information, for conversation and for communication. The reading programme should be made a profitable, pleasurable and functional activity. Profitable in the sense that the learner is gaining new knowledge from reading; pleasurable in-so-far as the learner uses this skill effectively and successfully; functional in the sense that the learner is able to put whatever information he receives into gainful means.

The reading program should have specific aims toward which the teacher should guide the learner in whatever reading activity he (learner) may chose to participate in. These aims may include things such as: learning of some important points of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, intonation or structural words in the passage to be read. Questions from the teacher or from the class pertaining to the story or chapter to be read could be made more interesting and motivating if these are carefully worded. Difficult words and phrases should be discussed and made meaningful. This is best achieved through using the dictionary, giving antonyms and synonyms, dramatization, using objects, pictures, actions and any method which the teacher

^{4*} Minah Satana: *Basic Readers For English Teaching* (Philippine, 1967), p. 10.

^{5*} Mary Finnochiaro: *Teaching English as a Second Language* (New York, 1958), p. 140.

^{6*} E. V. Gatenby: "Conditions for Success in Language Learning," *Teaching English As a Second Language* (New York, 1965), p. 14.

considers as appropriate in promoting and in establishing the necessary behaviour expected of the learner. For further elaboration on the need for having specific aims for reading I would like to make reference here to Minda Sutaria as pointed out:

When teaching pupils to read for any of the purposes discussed above, it is imperative that (1) the pupils know the meaning of the purpose, (2) they know what they must do to attain the purpose, (3) they be given practice in reading for that purpose.^{7*}

Setting out of specific aims for any reading programme will undoubtedly be considered, as previously pointed out, on the needs of the learner. There are also different stages of reading determined by the level of ability of the learner and these shouldn't be ignored. These stages are: reading readiness stage, beginning reading stage, the developmental reading stage and the independent or rapid reading stage.^{8*} Each speaks for itself and each calls for a different aim with probably a different approach.

Activities will no doubt differ from one stage to the other but at the same time since our concern is presently with intensive reading we need to limit our discussion to those that are within the territory of intensive reading. Generally speaking activities such as answering questions based on the story; choral reading (after the teacher); vocabulary study; using new words in original sentences; retelling of the story orally or in writing are some of the activities which can help make intensive reading interesting, challenging and gratifying to the learner.

Extensive reading, according to Mary Finnocchio, is principally for comprehension. The ability to comprehend that which the learner has read depends largely upon meanings that he acquired through experience. Because the reader relies so much on his experience in order to interpret meanings correctly, it is therefore necessary to conclude that the teacher should motivate the learner to expand his knowledge of words or otherwise. This expansion can be motivated through enriching the reading program with activities that will

assist the learner in his search for meanings and relevancy through the printed page.

Setting of specific aims will assist both the instructor and the instructed in acquiring the experience wanted. Prepared questions on the passage to be read should be ready for the learner to answer. These questions will assist the learner to read with interest, purpose and meaning. Passages taken out of text-books should be discussed orally and modifications be made to help relate the story to the interest and experience of the learner. By this method the teacher can arouse the learner's interest and curiosity about the content and the main points within the story.

Activities relating to class discussion based on the story will prove invaluable in teaching extensive reading. From experience, I have found that when students are asked to criticize a passage or write a summary they seem to read with more interest and deep concentration.

In conclusion I would like to add that the reading process, and all that it takes to make it beneficial to the learner, is not an easy task. It demands creativity on the part of the instructor. The success of it lies in both the teacher and the student; dedication and patience are necessary for each. Effective reading will therefore have a great deal to do with the effectiveness of both the instructor and the student. Each party needs to participate actively in order to successfully bring the objectives of the reading programme to fruition.

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^{7*} Minda Casodan Sutaria, p. 45.

^{8*} Ibid., p. 46.

USING CROSSWORD PUZZLES IN TESL

by Kelly Harris, Jr.

There is something about challenges that always arouses some interest in people. In almost every possible field of endeavor challenges are possible. Language learning is far from being an exception.

This paper is to put forth my ideas on the worth of a particular type of challenge exercise that might be used in teaching

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English as a second language -- crosswords. I believe in their worth and hope to distinguish between good learning exercises and time consumers, although students should learn something from both types.

Walter Powell Allen, in two booklets of designed crosswords, has organized some very fine exercises that do not seem too difficult nor beyond the teaching realm.

He indicates in prefaces to both booklets that his intention is to provide fun and practice for people learning English. Also indicated is that the puzzles are from the basic 500 word list from *The Teachers Word Book of 30,000 Words* and the basic + 1,000 word lists. This seems to me like a fine idea. However, there is no indication given that these word lists are readily available to the students. Allowing second language learners to work without guidance or helpful lists is a negative approach. I think that lessons, similar to the one which follows, be given first before students attempt the crosswords.

Admittedly the puzzles are reasonably easy, but to use them as they are might be detrimental. I have noticed that no particular subject matter or central idea permeates the various examples, and this I do not agree with--until students become competent in their word knowledge. Step by step puzzles will help students more - that is, nouns and pronouns, or verb forms, or antonyms, synonyms and homonyms. Just so long as some sort of methodical build-up is used, then the Allen booklets will be helpful.

Dacanay and Bowen follow the pattern of

use that I have proposed as being of greater benefit in the initial learning stages. They insist that it is even necessary that a sample crossword be worked with the class on the blackboard to show the importance of unit, cohesion, and relevance.

Depending on the experience and total exposure of the class members, crosswords should begin with about ten to twelve answers being required, and building up from there. I personally like the 13 x 13 pattern as a maximum checker and prefer the square rather than "open-grill" formats.

Another very important part of crosswords that I implement is having students draw up their own puzzle frames instead of using cyclo-styled frames. My reasoning for this is that the following of written and spoken instructions will be more beneficial than allowing for greater speed in solving the puzzles.

(e.g.) Instructions should be written on the blackboard and then gone over orally. A picture or drawing of a sample frame would also assist.

After explaining, have class members repeat the instructions so that someone else can draw the required frame on the blackboard or a cardboard.

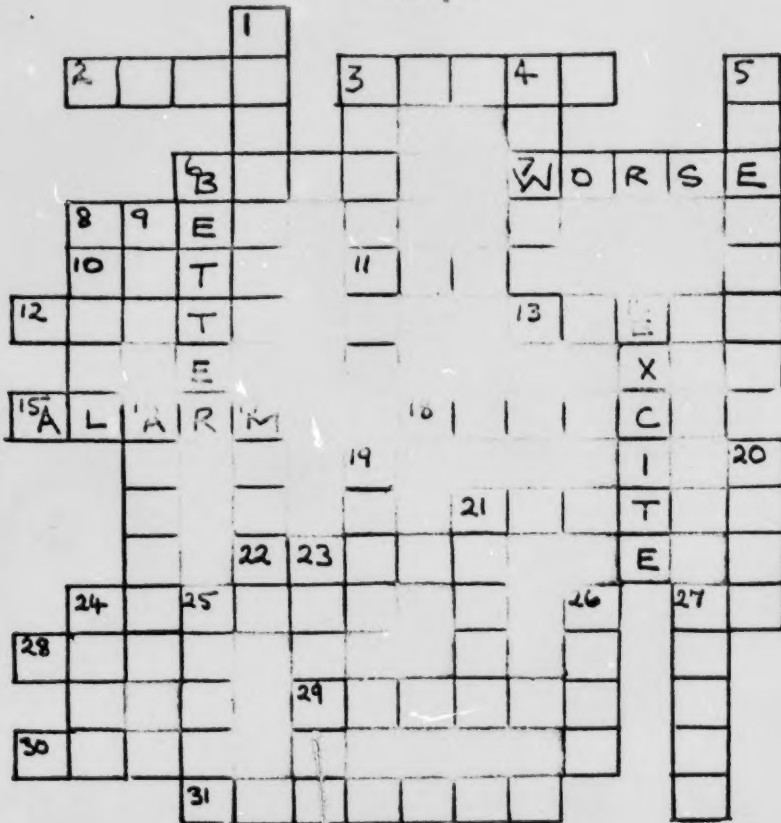
Basically then, my contention is that there are good lessons, that can be given through crosswords, but lists, instructions, demonstrations and examples are most important for second language students.

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ACROSS:

2. Synonym for neught.
3. Antonym for man.
6. Homonym with 21 down.
7. Opposite of better.
8. Same sound as 13 across.
10. Meaning to join (in animals.)
11. SACRED.
12. Not very important.
13. A small part of a play.
14. A synonym to 14 down.
18. To teach in church.
21. Opposite to sweet.
22. A smell.
24. The clue for 11 across.
27. Down is its antonym.
28. A synonym for man.
29. Commands; demands.
30. More or . . . are antonyms.
31. Terrestrial.

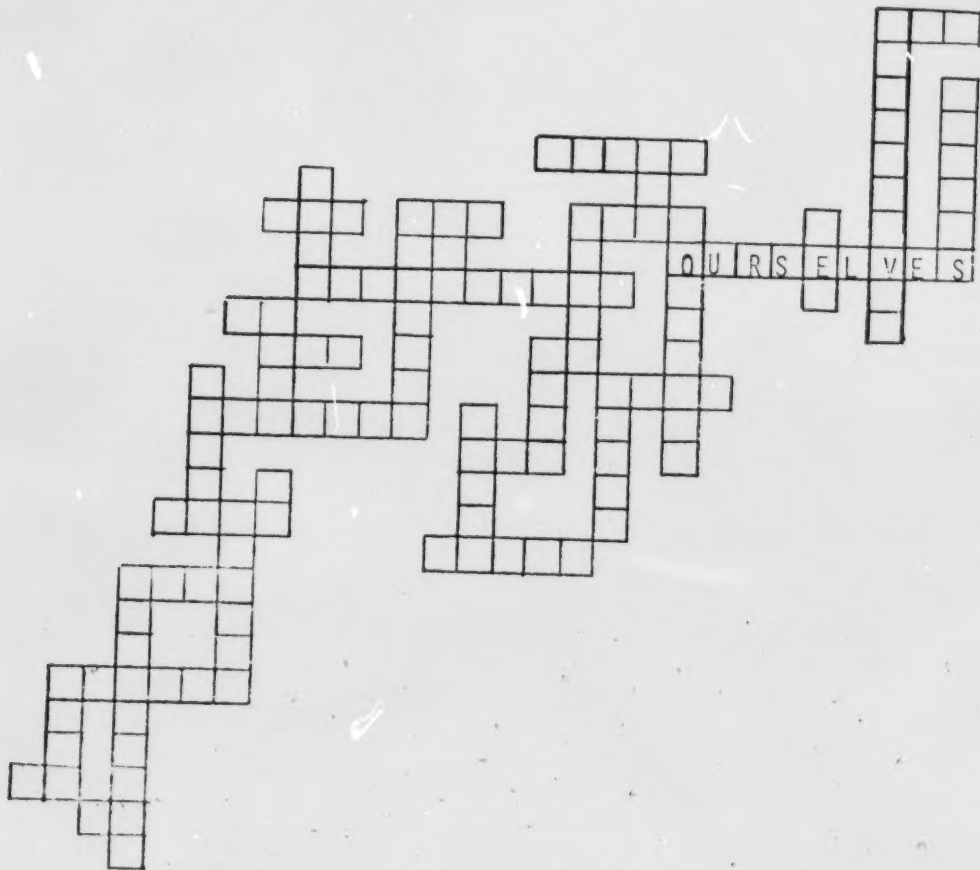
DOWN:

1. Trip.
3. Meaning climate conditions.
4. Opposite of never.
5. A word that sounds like 3 down.
6. The clue for 7 across.
8. The clue for 22 across.
9. We usually _____ food.
14. To stir up.
16. Another word for beast.
17. Very important.
19. What people eat.
20. Journey.
21. Use a _____ to stop a car.
23. To eat completely.
24. If words are synonyms the meanings are the ____
25. Stop is a word that means the same.
26. Sounds the same as missed.
27. To join.

A PRONOUN ACROSTIC

ALL THE PERSONAL AND IMPERSONAL PRONOUNS ARE INCLUDED

Ourselves is given, but will be found again as one of the words.



SEE PRONOUN CHART
TESL REPORTER VOL. 5, No. 2,
WINTER 1973
(Reprinted on the opposite page)

By Alice C. Pack

PRONOUN CHART

PERSONAL PRONOUNS	SUBJECTIVE		OBJECTIVE		POSSESSIVE				REFLEXIVE	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Determiner*		Possessive Noun Phrase		Singular	Plural
1st Person	I	We	Me	Us	My	Our	Mine	Ours	Myself	Ourselves
2nd Person	You	You	You	You	Your	Your	Yours	Yours	Yourself	Yourselves
3rd Person										
masculine	he	they	him	them	His	their	his	theirs	himself	themselves
feminine	she	they	her	them	her	their	hers	theirs	herself	themselves
neuter	it	they	it	them	its	their	its	theirs	itself	themselves
RELATIVE PRONOUNS										
Human	who	who	whom	whom	whose	whose				
Nonhuman	which	which	which	which						
DEMONSTRATIVES										
	that	those								
	this	these								
					Determiner*		Noun Phrase			
					Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural		
					that	those	that	those		
					this	these	this	these		

RULES

1. All pronouns must have an antecedent.
2. They must show agreement with the antecedent - In sentence 2 they refers to pronouns in sentence 1, and must show plural, neuter, subject.
3. Subject forms are used as subjects and complements. In present day English both subject forms are used as complements - (after be).

Examples -

Who's John? That's *he* in the blue shirt. Who is *it*? It's *2*.
That's *him* in the blue shirt. It's *me*.

15

- III. Object forms are used as objects of (1) verbs, (2) prepositions, or (3) verbals.

Examples -

1. Give *it* to the boy. 2. Give *it* to *him*. 3. Seeing *her*, he started to run.

- IV. Reflexive pronouns are used for (1) emphasis, and (2) as object of the same subject.

Examples -

1. *He himself* spoke to us. 2. *I* cut myself because the knife was sharp.
I have no objections to the *deal itself*. *I* bought myself a new car.

* See Chart No. 1 - THE ENGLISH NOUN PHRASE. Determiners

Fall 1973

Page 13

THE FUNCTIONS OF BE IN ENGLISH

by Alice C. Pack

Present forms

I am
He (She, It) is
You (They, We) are

Past forms

I (He, She, It) was
You (They, We) were

I-A. BE as the main verb:

1. Verb alone followed by a locative.

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Verb</u>	<u>Locative</u>
He	is	here.
He	was	there.
I	am	in the kitchen.
I	was	in the backyard.

2. With a modal and verb. (Use base form of BE after a modal.)

	<u>Subject</u>	<u>Modal</u>	<u>Verb</u>	<u>Locative</u>
	He	will	be	there.
He said	he	would	be	here.
	I	can	be	there.
	They	should	be	here.

3. With the auxiliary HAVE. (Use past participle of BE [been] after HAVE.)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Auxiliary</u>	<u>Verb</u>	<u>Locative</u>
	<u>HAVE</u>	<u>(P. P.)</u>	
He	has	been	here.
I	have	been	there.
She	had	been	there before he arrived.

4. With both a modal and HAVE. (Use base form of HAVE after a modal and past participle of BE [been] after HAVE.)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Modal</u>	<u>Auxiliary</u>	<u>Verb</u>	<u>Locative</u>
		<u>HAVE</u>	<u>(P. P.)</u>	
He	could	have	been	here.
She	might	have	been	in the kitchen.
They	must	have	been	there.
I	should	have	been	there.

B. BE followed by a noun:

1. Verb alone.

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Verb</u>	<u>Noun</u>
He	is	a doctor.
She	was	a nurse.
They	are	missionaries.
I	am	a secretary.

2. With a modal. (Use base form of BE after a modal.)

Subject	Modal	Verb	Noun
He	will	be	a doctor.
She	can	be	a nurse.
He	must	be	a missionary.
They	should	be	teachers.

3. With the auxiliary HAVE. (Use past participle of BE [been] after HAVE)

Subject	Auxiliary	Verb	Noun
	HAVE	(P. P.)	
He	has	been	a doctor.
She	has	been	a nurse.
I	have	been	a missionary.
They	have	been	teachers.

4. With both a modal and HAVE. (Use base form of HAVE after a modal and past participle of BE [been] after HAVE.)

Subject	Modal	Auxiliary	Verb	Noun
		HAVE	(P. P.)	
He	could	have	been	a doctor.
She	might	have	been	a nurse.
I	should	have	been	a missionary.
They	must	have	been	teachers.

C. BE followed by a modifier (adjective).

1. Verb alone.

Subject	Verb	Modifier
He	was	sick.
She	is	small.
They	are	happy.
I	am	grateful.
You	were	wise.

2. Verb with a modal. (Use base form of verb [be] after a modal.)

Subject	Modal	Verb	Modifier
He	could	be	sick.
She	may	be	small.
They	will	be	happy.
I	should	be	grateful.

3. Verb with the auxiliary HAVE. (Use past participle of verb [been] after HAVE.)

Subject	Auxiliary	Verb	Modifier
	HAVE	(P. P.)	
He	has	been	sick.
She	has	been	small all her life.
They	have	been	happy.
You	have	been	wise.

4. Verb with both modal and HAVE. (Use base form of HAVE after a modal and past participle of verb [been] after HAVE.)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Modal</u>	<u>Auxiliary</u> <u>HAVE</u>	<u>Verb</u> <u>(P. P.)</u>	<u>Modifier</u>
He	could	have	been	sick.
She	might	have	been	small when she was younger.
They	must	have	been	happy.
I	should	have	been	grateful

5. With the auxiliary BE. (Use -ing form of verb [being] after BE.)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Auxiliary</u> <u>BE</u>	<u>Verb</u> <u>-ing form</u>	<u>Modifier</u>
He	is	being	bad.
She	is	being	good.

(The auxiliary BE and verb BE are seldom used together.)

6. With a modal and BE as auxiliary. (Use base form of BE after the modal, the -ing form of BE [being] after the auxiliary BE, and the past participle of the verb after the passive BE.)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Modal</u>	<u>Auxiliary</u> <u>BE</u>	<u>Passive BE</u> <u>(-ing form)</u>	<u>Verb</u> <u>(P. P.)</u>
The food	might	be	being	eaten right now.
The lesson	might	be	being	completed now.
They	might	be	being	beaten now.

7. With a modal and HAVE and BE as auxiliaries. (Use base form of HAVE after modals, past participle of BE after HAVE, -ing form of BE after the auxiliary BE, and the past participle of the verb after the passive BE.)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Modal</u>	<u>Auxiliary</u> <u>HAVE</u>	<u>Auxiliary</u> <u>BE (P. P.)</u>	<u>Passive BE</u> <u>(-ing form)</u>	<u>Verb</u> <u>(P. P.)</u>
The food	could	have	been	being	eaten while we were in the other room.
The lesson	might	have	been	being	finished while he was gone.
They	could	have	been	being	beaten when the best player was resting.

(Note: This is the longest verb group possible in English.)

II. BE as an auxiliary to the main verb.

1. Verb with BE. (Use -ing form of verb after BE as an auxiliary.)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Auxiliary</u> <u>BE</u>	<u>Verb</u> <u>(-ing form)</u>
I	am	cooking.
He	is	swimming.
She	is	reading.
They	are	listening to some music.
You	are	working on this lesson.
They	were	sleeping.

2. Verb with a modal and BE. (Use base form of BE after modal and -ing form of verb after BE.)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Modal</u>	<u>Auxiliary</u>		<u>Verb</u>
		<u>BE</u>		<u>(-ing form)</u>
He	could	be		swimming.
She	must	be		reading.
They	might	be		listening to some music.
They	may	be		sleeping.

3. Verb with a modal and HAVE and BE as auxiliaries. (Use past participle of BE [been] after HAVE and -ing form of verb after BE.)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Modal</u>	<u>Auxiliary</u>		<u>Verb</u>
		<u>HAVE</u>	<u>BE (P. P.)</u>	<u>(-ing form)</u>
He	could	have	been	swimming.
She	must	have	been	reading.
They	may	have	been	listening.
They	might	have	been	sleeping.
You	should	have	been	working.

III. BE as part of the transformation into the passive. (BE is followed by the past participle when used in the passive.)

1. Verb alone. (Use past participle of verb after BE.)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>BE (passive)</u>	<u>Verb (P. P.)</u>
The food	was	eaten.
The lesson	was	completed.
They	were	beaten.

2. Verb with a modal. (Use base form of BE after modal and past participle of verb after BE.)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Modal</u>	<u>Passive</u>		<u>Verb</u>
		<u>BE</u>		<u>(P. P.)</u>
The food	must	be		eaten.
The lesson	could	be		completed.
They	might	be		beaten.

3. With HAVE as an auxiliary. (use past participle of BE [been] after HAVE and past participle of verb after passive BE.)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Auxiliary</u>		<u>Passive</u>		<u>Verb</u>
	<u>HAVE</u>		<u>BE (P. P.)</u>		<u>(P. P.)</u>
The food	has		been		eaten.
The lesson	had		been		completed.
They	have		been		beaten.

4. With BE as an auxiliary. (Use -ing form of BE [being] after auxiliary BE and the past participle of the verb after passive BE.)

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Auxiliary</u>		<u>Passive BE</u>		<u>Verb</u>
	<u>BE</u>		<u>(-ing form)</u>		<u>(P. P.)</u>
The food	was		being		eaten.
The lesson	was		being		completed.
They	were		being		beaten.

5. With a modal and HAVE as auxiliary. (Use base form of HAVE after a modal and past participle of BE [been] after HAVE and the past participle of the verb after passive BE.)

Subject	Modal	Auxiliary	Passive	Verb
		HAVE	BE (P, P.)	(P, P.)
The food	could	have	been	eaten.
The lesson	might	have	been	completed.
They	must	have	been	beaten.

THE FUNCTIONS OF HAVE IN ENGLISH will appear in the next issue of the TESL REPORTER. THE FUNCTIONS OF DO IN ENGLISH and THE FUNCTIONS OF CAN AND WILL IN ENGLISH will appear in future editions.

DICTIONARY USAGE & ESL

(continued from page 12)

the best practice, but when this is not feasible, the student must be cautioned repeatedly about the order of listing different meanings. Some dictionaries list the earliest meanings first and the most recent meaning last; others list the most common current meaning first, which is then traced back to earlier meanings.

Synonyms and antonyms, if they are familiar words, provide good supplementary clues to the definitions stated. The part-of-speech label — noun, verb, adjective, etc. — helps to identify common occurrences, and the usage examples in phrases and sentences illustrate words in context. These are all aids to understanding the meanings of words and their customary use in sentences. The ESL student grasps the utility of these aids slowly at first, but he picks up speed with repeated "visits" to the dictionary.

Besides the meanings of words in ordinary usage, the ESL student consults the dictionary to locate meanings of idioms, two-part verbs, and slang that he encounters in reading and in conversations with Americans. For example, he may want to find the meaning of *pull one's leg*, *pass the buck*, *call off*, *get by*, *nitty gritty*, and *goon*. These expressions are all familiar to the American student, but usually unfamiliar to the ESL student. Similarly, the ESL student refers to the dictionary for

information about important persons and places, particularly in regard to the United States.

The ESL student makes occasional use of the other dictionary references: usage levels — formal, colloquial, slang, etc.; etymologies; labels for specialized fields — Chemistry, Economics, Psychology, etc.; and editorial matter — tables of weights and measures, list of U. S. colleges and universities, etc. Words related to the one being defined, however, are given special attention. In English there is a fairly complex machinery for word derivation among the major word classes by means of affixes: nouns from verbs (*govern-government*), verbs from nouns (*beauty-beautify*), adjectives from nouns (*dust-dusty*), nouns from adjectives (*ill-illness*), adjectives from verbs (*agree-agreeable*), verbs from adjectives (*sharp-sharpen*), adverbs from adjectives and nouns (*clear-clearly*, *instant-instantly*). As a native speaker of the language, the American student has no difficulty with this kind of elaboration. But the ESL student makes frequent mistakes in choosing the appropriate affix: *improvement*, for example, instead of *approval*.

The lack of adequate competence in language skills puts the average foreign student at a disadvantage. The dictionary does not solve all of his language problems, but it serves him better than any other single reference tool he can own.

READING INSTRUCTION FOR NATIVE AND SECOND LANGUAGE STUDENTS

by Sid Jenson

A well designed language program works regardless of the student's first language or ethnic background. This is one of the conclusions that can be drawn from the RISE (Reading Improvement Services Everywhere) Project held on the Church College of Hawaii campus this summer.

Under the direction of Mona Sherwood, Chairman of RISE for the State of Hawaii, Dr. Carl Harris and Dr. Sid Jenson of CCH and Elaine Makaio of the Laie Elementary School offered a structured tutoring program for children from the ages of 6 to 11 who were behind on their grade level in reading skills. The tutoring program ran for five weeks, with the children in class for one and one half hours, five days a week.

The class period was divided into three parts: (1) each child was tutored in reading about 15 minutes per day; (2) the child read graded material for 5, 10, 30 minutes per day (the length of time depended on the child); (3) and the remainder of the class time was spent in organized activities, such as movies, games, coloring, motor skill drills, and outside recreation activities.

The tutoring program used was Grant Von Harrison's *Beginning Reading I* (Brigham Young University Press, 1972). Harrison's structured tutoring uses trained tutors. It takes about four hours minimum to train an adult or teenager. We used teachers, parents, college, high school and junior high school students as tutors. All worked about equally well. The personality of the tutor was more critical than age or previous education.

Harrison's *Beginning Reading I* has eighty-five well explained steps which the tutor follows. The student is first taught five sight words (the, is, in, this, I), and then is taught the names of five letters (s, m, f, n, a) and then the sounds of those same five

letters. For example the sound of "m" is blended with "a" to produce "ma." Then after two letter combinations, three letter combinations, such as "mas" and "mal" are learned, the student is asked to decode real and nonsense words, such as "maf," "fan," and "sam." When this is accomplished, the student reads a story composed of the five

Sid Jenson, CCH English faculty member, obtained a doctorate in English from the University of Utah in 1972. During the past year he has supervised the reading program at the Church College of Hawaii.

sight words and five sounds they have learned. Very quickly the student can read; this does wonders for his self-esteem.

Basically this is the program. The student learns names of letters, sound of letters, then blends the sounds - name, sound, blends. With the addition of some critical sight words, the student then reads sentences and stories. Dr. Harrison, through much trial and error (his book is in the eighth version) has determined which letter, diagraphs, and sight words are easiest and which need to be learned first. The student follows a sequential, step by step, program, guided by the tutor, working on a one to one basis for short periods of each day.

The personal attention, the sequential order, the mastery of a small amount of material each day, the controlled reading material all make Harrison's method successful.

The backbone of the method is flashcards. The letters, sounds, and sight words are on triplicate cards; and through the tutor's manipulation of the cards, the student has a high repetition of material he is learning. Little time is wasted on material which has already been mastered. However, there is sufficient repetition to reinforce the

student's past learning and to give him confidence.

Our summer at CCH program is not yet completed. Many of the students have finished only about one half of the eighty-five steps. The program will be continued this fall in the local elementary schools. But the program has a series of mastery checks, and so the teachers and students know quite clearly all through the program how successful the teaching and learning are. A student is not allowed to continue from step to step unless he has mastered the past material.

Judging from the results we have so far, it is very clear that we have one factor which determines success or failure — attendance. If the child attended, he progressed in his reading skills. If he didn't he didn't. The student who progressed the most in the session was the student who missed only one day, and that day was excused. Three students were asked to drop the program because they would not attend regularly, which meant the tutor had to go back several steps and review, which made both the tutor and the student frustrated. If the child had regular attendance, we would measure regular progression. Some children progressed more rapidly than others; but all progressed, regardless of their first language

or ethnic backgrounds.

We had children from several different cultural, and economic backgrounds. We had Koreans, Tahitians, Japanese, Caucasian, Chinese, Samoan, Tongan, Hawaiian, and part-Hawaiian. The differences in their progress seemed due more to the home situation and personal temperament than to any cultural or language heritage. This leads to our not new, but re-confirmed conclusion, that any good language program will work for all ethnic groups.

We recognize that our students were young and adapt easily to new programs and new languages, but we are confident that this program will successfully work with older persons as well. This is a subjective hunch on our part, but near the end of our session we were given outside statistical data to support our belief.* When this year's program is finished in the spring of 1974, we will have more statistical data on which to base our conclusions, but as of now, we feel very pleased with the reading progress the children have shown so far.

* Improving Human Performance: *A Research Quarterly*, 1 (December 1972). This issue contains several articles with bibliographies of work done in tutoring and reading instruction.

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MOTHER GOOSE AND ESL

by Ted Plaister

What can an ESL teacher do with a class of twenty sophisticated young adults who know a considerable amount of English, yet who are still weak in auditing; who need practice in making decisions from information which they hear (rather than see); and who are somewhat hesitant when it comes to speaking? My suggestion is to teach them Mother Goose Rhymes. Before you stop reading in disgust, which is what I

would have done a few years ago, consider what can be accomplished with these simple rhymes.

To explicate this, let me detail for you an account of the procedures which I followed in using Mother Goose Rhymes with a class of twenty Japanese university graduates, average age about 28 years, some of whom were being groomed for very important positions with some of the largest companies in Japan.² While I have no empirical data to show evidence of effectiveness of this technique, on the basis of teacher judgment and student reaction, I nonetheless feel that significant improvement occurred in their ability to understand English spoken at normal speed.

Before teaching by means of Mother Goose Rhymes, the students must accept that "childish" materials are being used only as a means to an end. I had anticipated a problem, but in actual practice, there was none. These students were highly motivated to learn and to them, "the end justified the means". The students understood clearly that I was using the rhymes in order to help them improve their understanding of spoken English.

The actual procedure I followed stems, in part, from a technique suggested by Harnadek for use in critical reading.³ What

CONTENTS

Mother Goose and ESL by Ted Plaister	Page 1
The Inscrutability of Chinese Name Family and Given by Jason B. Alter	Page 3
The Tense Carrier in Negative Sentences and Tag-Questions by Yao Shen	Page 4
Pronoun Acrostic Solution	Page 6
The Functions of Have in English by Alice C. Pack	Page 7
A Lesson on Synonyms, Antonyms, and Homonyms for ESL Students by Kelly Harris, Jr.	Page 11

I have done is adapt it for teaching aural to non-native speakers of English. The first step in the teaching procedure is dictation. The rhyme is dictated line by line at *normal conversational speed*. If it is NOT done then the overall effectiveness of the procedure is seriously diluted. After all, the intent is to improve aural. At no time during the dictation does the teacher give a word in isolation. The lines of the rhyme are repeated over and over in their entirety. One very effective device is, before the dictation, to tell the students the number of words in a given line. In this way they can check the number of words they have written down with the actual number of words as given

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Dr. Plaister has formerly contributed to the *TESL Reporter*.

them by the teacher. For example, let us take a line from *Little Miss Muffet*. The teacher says, "This line has five words in it." The line is then dictated: "There came a big spider." Quite often students will be observed to have written only four words:

There came big spider, omitting *a* which in a normal reading of the line would be said under weak stress. Let us say that the teacher has spoken the line several times and notices that the students will have only four words -- a situation which occurred in my class on many occasions. A great temptation exists for the teacher to tell the students that they have omitted the word *a*. However, I feel it is much better to remind the students that they are missing a word, that they should listen for the missing word, and further, that they should apply what they know about English grammar to help them solve the problem of the missing word. With this kind of prompting, some students will suddenly "hear" the missing word.

Others will still not be able to figure out what is missing. In these cases, the suggested technique is for the teacher to point to the place in the sentence on the student's paper where the word is missing -- in our example between *came* and *big* -- and tell the student to focus his listening on that "space". The student is not told what is missing; he must listen for it. Quite often this much help suffices. In some cases, though, this still isn't enough. Here one can isolate the words *came a big* and say only this portion of the sentence over and over until the student realizes what is missing. Again, let me emphasize that the three words should be said at perfectly normal speed so that *a* comes out as a reduced vowel blended smoothly in between *came* and *big*. If this is not done, the value of the dictation exercise is lost.

Seating the students so that the teacher can circulate among them facilitates checking on the accuracy of each student's work. As the teacher walks around he can point out with a pencil or finger where errors occur. For example, a common error will be the spelling M-a-f-f-e-t or M-o-f-f-e-t for M-u-f-f-e-t. These spellings reflect, for the most part, phonological interference. At this point the teacher can call on a student to spell the word and as he does, the teacher writes it on the board. Now the teacher says the word repeatedly, indicating that the spelling is incorrect and that the reason for the wrong spelling is mishearing. The teacher then leads the students to discover where the error is. (This is one instance where minimal pairs used on the spot can be effective; i.e., one could set up the name, *Moffet*, as a minimal pair with *Muffet* and give a quick discrimination drill.)

Once the entire dictation is complete and the students have the complete rhyme written down, a word or two can be said about the proper form for a short verse -- indented lines, etc. The students might then quickly recopy their verse in the correct form. After the students have a perfect copy of the rhyme, questioning can begin on individual vocabulary items which the students do not understand, e.g., *tuffet* in our example. The teacher will want to draw out of the students that, without ever having seen one, they actually know from the context a lot about what a *tuffet* is. The meaning of the lines of the verse, or indeed, the entire verse, should be discussed after individual vocabu-

(continued on page 14)

THE INSCRUTABILITY OF CHINESE NAMES, FAMILY AND GIVEN

by Jason B. Alter

Five million Chinese could be Wong, or Huang, or Hwang, or Ng, or even Wee; all of these being variant spellings or pronunciations of the same Chinese character. The teacher of English as a second language naturally seeks to get to know his students' names as soon as he can. Currently in Singapore, on leave from the University of Hawaii, and having spent eight years teaching ESL in Taiwan, I would like to report in

Jason B. Alter, on leave from the University of Hawaii, is the acting director of the Language Centre, Nanyang University in Singapore. Dr. Alter has formerly contributed to the *TESL Reporter*.

brief on the vagaries of Chinese names--vagaries that may tend to feed the stereotype that the Chinese are inscrutable.

In any Chinese environment, the Chinese family name is stated first: "Au Jye Sheng". Chinese characters (not words) are all monosyllabic. The practice in Singapore is not to hyphenate the given name. For example, in the name above, "Au" is the family name, while "Jye Sheng" is, in effect, a two-part given name. The "Jye" is definitely not thought of as a middle name.

In Taiwan this same name would appear as either "Au Jye Sheng" or as "Au Jye-Sheng". There would be a hyphen, and the first letter of the last part of the name might or might not be capitalized.

In Singapore, a cosmopolitan crossroads, there are many people who also have an English given name; staying with our example, we would then have "Jake Au Jye Sheng" with given names bracketing the

family name.

For married women, the plot thickens, since in business and professional circles they often retain their maiden name and add the English title of 'Madam'. Thus, Mr. Au's wife would be "Madam Sz Mei Li" with "Sz" being her maiden name. Or the same woman might choose to be recognized as "Mrs. Mary Au Sz Mei Li"; here the four characters represent her husband's family name, (and her own married name), her maiden name, and her two-character given name.

The following are the major varieties of Chinese spoken in Singapore: Hokkien, Teochew, Hakka, Cantonese, Hainanese, and Mandarin. Mandarin is taught as a second language in the English-stream schools and as the first language in the Chinese-stream schools. The name "Tan" is among the most common in the 1973 Singapore Telephone Book. Here is how "Tan" would be read or pronounced in the above varieties: Hokkien - 'Tan'; Teochew - 'Tan'; Hakka - 'Chin'; Cantonese - 'Chan'; Hainanese - 'Tan'; Mandarin - 'Chen'. The point is that the multi-dialectal factor adds another complication.

Where English uses "John Doe", Chinese uses "Jang San, Li Sz" (Jang three, Li four). In Singapore it is not uncommon for a person to have an alias. In the recent graduation program at Nanyang University, I noticed several cases listed, with both variations given.

Next we should mention the matter of the romanization system used to transcribe the Chinese names. The Wade-Giles system uses apostrophes, for example to indicate aspiration, while the Yale system and the Pin-yin systems do not; the systems vary in other

(continued on page 13)

THE TENSE CARRIER IN NEGATIVE SENTENCES AND TAG-QUESTIONS

by Yao Shen

The importance of identifying the tense carrier and its positional relation to the subject of the sentence in simple affirmative statements and simple affirmative yes-no questions has been pointed out in a previous article (*The TESL Reporter*, Vol. 7, No. 1, Fall, 1973). This article demonstrates the significance of identifying the tense carrier in the formation of simple negative statements, simple negative yes-no questions, and tag-questions.

In simple predicates, expanded or unexpanded, the tense carrier (T) occurs only once. In an affirmative statement, it occurs after the subject (S) of the sentence: S+T. In a negative statement, this arrangement is observed. The addition is the negative function word which occurs after the tense carrier. This negative function word may be in the free form, *not*, or in the bound form, *n't*. In the case of *n't*, it is bound to the tense carrier. Such linguistic behavior may be seen in the following examples of negative statements.

S	+	T
Henry	didn't	come
Carol	hasn't	been cooking
Juliet	wasn't	being told
The car	couldn't	have been fixed

S	+	T
Henry	did	not come
Carol	has	not been cooking
Juliet	was	not being told
The car	could	not have been fixed

In simple affirmative yes-no questions, the tense carrier occurs before the subject of the sentence: T+S. In simple negative yes-no questions, this arrangement is observed. The

addition is one where the bound form, *n't*, together with the tense carrier, precedes the subject.

T	+	S
Doesn't	Henry	come
Hasn't	Carol	been cooking
Wasn't	Juliet	being told
Couldn't	the car	have been fixed

The free form, *not*, continues to occur after the tense carrier. However, in relation

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to the subject of the sentence which follows the tense carrier, *not* may precede or follow the subject.

T	+	S
Does not	Henry	come
Has not	Carol	been cooking
Was not	Juliet	being told
Could not	the car	have been fixed

T	+	S
Does	Henry not	come
Has	Carol not	been cooking
Was	Juliet not	being told
Could	the car not	have been fixed

Two arrangements of tag-questions are most frequently referred to.

1. *Negative statement followed by affirmative question.* In the negative statement, the positional relation of the free form, *not*, and the bound form, *n't*, to the tense carrier, and their relation to the subject of the sentence remain the same as described. In the tag (yes-no) question, the positional relation of the tense carrier to the subject of the sentence also remains the same as described.

S	+	T		T	+	S
Henry		does	not come	does		he
Carol		has	not been cooking	has		she
Juliet		was	not being told	was		she
The car		could	not have been fixed	could		it
S	+	T		T	+	S
Henry		doesn't	come	does		he
Carol		hasn't	been cooking	has		she
Juliet		wasn't	being told	was		she
The car		couldn't	have been fixed	could		it

2. *Affirmative statement followed by negative question.* In the affirmative statement, the positional relation between the tense carrier and the subject of sentence remains the same as described. In the negative tag (yes-no) question, the positional relation of the bound form, *n't*, to the tense carrier, and their relation to the subject of the sentence remain the same as described.

S	+	T		T	+	S
Henry		comes		doesn't		he
Carol		has	been cooking	hasn't		she
Juliet		was	being told	wasn't		she
The car		could	have been fixed	couldn't		it

The free form, *not*, in the negative tag (yes-no) question frequently occurs after the subject rather than before it.

S	+	T		T	+	S
Henry		comes		does		he not
Carol		has	been cooking	has		she not
Juliet		was	being told	was		she not
The car		could	have been fixed	could		it not

The occurrence of *not* before the subject, nevertheless, is not wrong.

S	+	T		T	+	S
Henry		comes		does not		he
Carol		has	been cooking	has not		she
Juliet		was	being told	was not		she
The car		could	have been fixed	could not		it

The tense carrier in relation to the subject in the statement and the tense carrier in relation to the subject in the tag-question may be represented by S + T, T + S is affirmative; if S + T is affirmative, T + S is negative.

Statement

S + T (negative)

S + T (affirmative)

Tag-question

T + S (affirmative)

T + S (negative)

The bases remain in the distinction between S + T for statements and T + S for yes-no

References:

S + T

T + S

Yao Shen, "Supplementation of Opposites in Simple Predicate Expansion," *TESL Reporter*. Vol. 4, Nos. 1-4 (Fall, 1970-Summer, 1971).

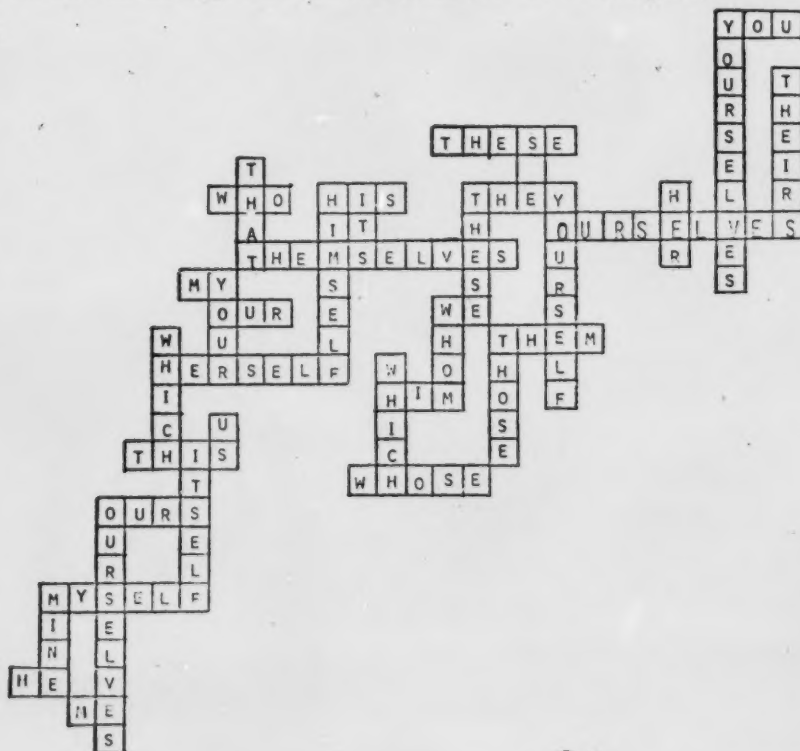
Yao Shen, "Co-occurrence and Non-co-occurrence of Tense Carrier and Verb in Simple Predicates," *TESL Reporter*, Vol. 5, No. 3 (Spring, 1972), 6-7, 10.

Yao Shen, "Some Distinctions Among
Four Grammatical Items in English," *The
Hawaii Language Teacher*, Volume 15,
Number 1 (March, 1973), 23-30.

"The Tense Carrier in Two Kinds of Wh-Sentences" will appear in a following issue of this journal.

PRONOUN ACROSTIC SOLUTION

The Pronoun Acrostic appeared in the Fall 1973 issue of the TESL Reporter



THE FUNCTIONS OF HAVE IN ENGLISH

by Alice C. Pack

Present forms

He (She, It)	has
I (You, We, They)	have

Past forms

He (She, It)	had
I (You, We, They)	had

1-A HAVE as the main verb:

1. Verb Alone. (The verb HAVE takes a noun object).

Subject	Verb	Object
He	has	a car
She	has	a cold
They	had	a fight
I	have	the books
They	have	money

2. With a modal and verb. (Use base form of HAVE after a modal).

Subject	Ver		
Subject	Modal	Verb - HAVE	Object
He	may	have	a car
She	might	have	a cold
I	should	have	the books
They	must	have	money
They	will	have	a fight.

3. With the auxiliary HAVE. (Use past participle form of HAVE (had) after the auxiliary HAVE')

Subject	A	Auxiliary HAVE	Verb (P.P.)	Object
He		has	had	a car.
She		has	had	a cold.
I		have	had	the books.
They		have	had	money.
They		had	had	a fight.

4. With a Modal and auxiliary HAVE (Use base form of auxiliary HAVE after a modal and the past participle form of the verb after HAVE).

Subject	Modal	Auxiliary HAVE	Verb (P.P) HAVE	Object
He	might	have	had	a car
She	could	have	had	a cold.
I	should	have	had	the books last week.
They	must	have	had	money.
They	could	have	had	a fight.

(continued on page 10)

A REPORT ON THE NEW READING CLINIC AT CCH

by Jay Fox

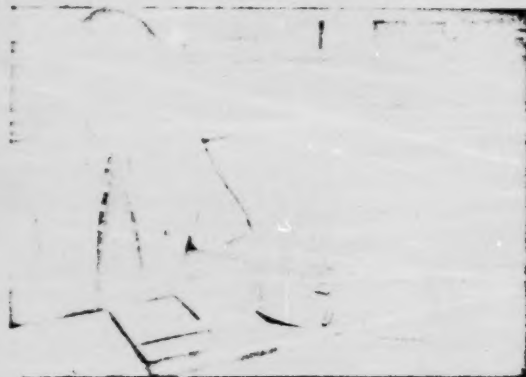
After a full semester in a new reading facility, students and faculty members at CCH report a marked improvement in motivation to work in the College's developmental reading program. The reading clinic was previously housed in a women's dormitory far from the center of regular classroom activity and the hike to it dampened the interests of nearly everyone. Now the rooms are located at a prime location in the classroom area of campus and the services of the program have been brought back into the mainstream of academic activities.

Enrolled students are usually at or below the 40% on standardized tests, although occasionally more proficient students enroll to simply increase their reading speed. Classes are limited to less than twenty students.

The reading program has a wide variety of activities. The selection varies somewhat from semester to semester depending upon the needs of the students. After various diagnostic tests to determine the needs of the students, the instructor plans his course. We use materials from the Perceptual Development Laboratory Program, the Educational Developmental Program, Science Research Associates, the Craig Reading Program, plus a wide variety of other materials.* The current text is *Improving Reading Ability, 3rd Edition* by Stroud, Anmons, Bainman.

*The program uses the Perceptual Development Laboratory reading program and films used in connection with the PDL Perceptoscope. Also used are pacers, Craig readers, and language master machines with accompanying audio-visual materials.

Students work with individual pacers



The basic activity in the classroom is simply paced reading. The daily schedule of activities is usually something like this: 20 minutes doing exercises and short readings with comprehension tests from the text or from the daily newspaper, fifteen minutes reading longer printed materials with comprehension tests from the PDL or EDL. Interspaced are study skills, exercises on library, dictionary, bibliography, textbook reading, outlining, organization, thesis sentence, vocabulary and other language art skills. Outside the class, a student selects books from a prepared "high interest" reading list. He must read 1500 pages to pass the course with a "C" grade, 2500 pages for an "A". He may also read books not on the list if approved by the instructor. His outside reading is checked by a writing assignment and an oral interview with the instructor.

It is a policy in the program that students who do not achieve 70% comprehension at 250 words per minute on 10-12 grade material, receive an X for the course and must successfully repeat the course again in order to receive a regular grade.

Most students more than doubled their reading speed with marked improvement in comprehension. Statistics from last semester show that the average improvement in speed was 72% with 52% improvement in comprehension. An occasional student increased 300 to 400%.

Upper left: Individual work with the Craig Readers

Middle: Class exercises using the perceptoscope

Below and Lower left: In class timed recognition exercises



The Functions of Have in English

(continued from page 7)

5. With auxiliary BE. (Using form of verb (having) after BE.

Subject	Be	(-ing form)	Object
She	is	having	a good time.
He	is	having	a haircut.
We	are	having	a party.
They	are	having	trouble with their car.
They	are	having	a fight.
We	were	having	fun.

6. With modal and auxiliary BE. (Use base form of BE after a modal, -ing form of HAVE after BE).

Subject	Modal	Auxiliary BE	Verb - HAVE (-ing form)	Object
She	could	be	having	a good time.
He	should	be	having	a haircut.
You	must	be	having	a party.
They	might	be	having	trouble with their car.
They	could	be	having	a fight.
They	will	be	having	dinner here.

7. With auxiliaries HAVE and BE. (Use past participle of BE (been) after HAVE and -ing form of verb (having) after BE).

Subject	Auxiliary HAVE	Auxiliary BE (P.P)	Verb - HAVE (-ing form)	Object
She	has	been	having	a good time.
They	have	been	having	trouble with their car.
He	has	been	having	a party every week.
They	had	been	having	a fight.

8. With modal, auxiliaries HAVE and BE. (Use base form of HAVE after a modal, past participle of BE (been) after HAVE, and -ing form of verb after BE).

Subject	Modal	Auxiliary HAVE (P.P.)	Auxiliary BE (P.P.)	Verb (-ing form)	Object
She	could	have	been	having	a good time.
He	could	have	been	having	a haircut.
They	might	have	been	having	trouble with their car.
You	must	have	been	having	a party.
She	might	have	been	having	her dinner.
They	might	have	been	having	a fight.

II. HAVE as an auxiliary:

I. HAVE as an auxiliary is always followed by the past participle of the verb which follows.

Subject	Auxiliary	Verb (p.p.)	
He	has	read	the book several times.
We	have	finished	our work.
You	haven't	done	your assignment.
I	have	completed	the task.
I	had	attended	school in my own country before I came here.

(continued on page 16)

A LESSON ON SYNONYMS, ANTONYMS, AND HOMONYMS FOR ESL STUDENTS

by Kelly Harris, Jr.

This lesson may need two class periods depending upon the speed of the students to grasp the points.

In any language that is being taught as a second language, there is a need for teachers to use drills that will reinforce various concepts, meanings, or usage patterns. The following lesson plan attempts to give a method of reinforcing the concept that *sounds and meanings of words are most important in the English language*. This particular lesson is geared for High School Students who have had exposure to English previously, but this method is flexible and may easily be adapted to younger or more inexperienced students, as will be demonstrated by the short and simple example following the data for the lesson plan.

MAIN IDEA: Sounds and meanings of words are most important in English.

(a) Introduce students to three words that indicate distinct categories of words which illustrate the main idea.

- i.e. HOMONYMS - words sounding the same
 SYNONYMS - words meaning the same
 ANTONYMS - words with opposite meanings

(b) For HOMONYMS, point out that spelling becomes a very important aspect of learning as does an awareness,

(b) For HOMONYMS, point out that spelling becomes a very important aspect of learning as does an awareness of context, particularly where reading is used extensively as a mode of teaching.

- e.g. I see him every day.
 I sing a sea hymn every day.

(c) With SYNONYMS, it may be necessary to use visual aids to teach the several names that things may use or be known by. ANTONYMS may also be handled this way.

- e.g. (S) eraser - duster (hold up the item used for clearing the blackboard)
 (S) slipper, shoe, sandal (show various types of footwear)
 (A) boy - girl (have a boy and a girl stand)
 (A) break - fix (demonstrate both)

(d) Issue the following list of words to the students for an orally conducted exercise. The object is to have students recognise or understand the categories into which the pairs fall

(a) Antonym (b) Synonym (c) Homonym

here	there	join	connect	stop	halt
here	hear	join	disconnect	halt	cease
their	there	join	mate	odour	smell
their	they're	holly	wholly	odour	scent

zero	mought	holy	sacred	scent	sent
zero	nil	holy	unholy	scent	cent
nil	nothing	teach	preach	up	down
male	female	preach	exhort	commands	rules
man	male	preach	lecture	demands	commands
woman	man	minor	miner	orders	rules
horse	hoarse	minor	major	moor	more
course	coarse	minor	petty	more	less
course	rough	important	major	more	beside
coarse	smooth	alarm	excite	never	not ever
better	worse	bitter	sweet	weather	wether
seen	noticed	mist	fog	weather	whether
scene	picture	mist	missed	break	break
join	unite	beast	creature	break	fix
voyage	trip	beast	animal	earthly	worldly
trip	tour	consume	devour	worldly	terrestrial
tour	journey	devour	eat		

NOTE: Have each student in turn try to answer a pairing. If necessary open the choice to the class. Difficult pairings may need further illustrating by mime, visual aid, or still further words.

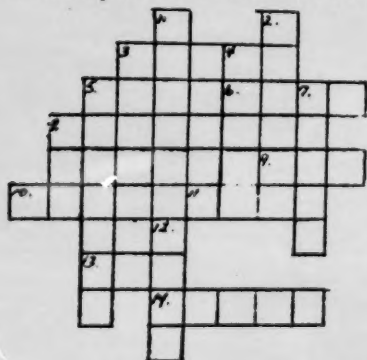
A variation could be that the students would indicate by a *hand to an ear* (sounds alike - HOMONYM); *hands together* (meaning the same - SYNONYM); or *hands apart* (opposites - ANTONYMS), what they feel are correct answers.

(e) When the above exercise is completed hand out the crossword that follows. All answers to the puzzle are included in the exercise list. Allow students to work in groups if they wish, but each student should try to have his individual copy completed for homework.

The following is a much less complicated list of homonyms, synonyms, and antonyms that could be used by beginning adults or on the elementary level; words might be originally introduced as opposites, sound alike and same meanings.

to	two	you	ewe	by	near
two	couple	I	eye	sea	see
two	too	mane	main	sea	ocean
too	also	die	dye	see	view
one	won	birth	death	hot	cold
good	bad	east	west	by	buy
in	inn	north	south	buy	sell
meet	meat	up	down	he	she
no	know	under	below	be	bee
		below	beneath	beat	beet
				wear	where

An example of a crossword that could be used for this level:



CLUE:

Across:

3. Opposite of birth
5. Near.
6. Antonym of east
8. Sounds like meat
9. Sounds like by
10. See
11. Sounds like beat
13. Also
14. Homonym of wear

Down:

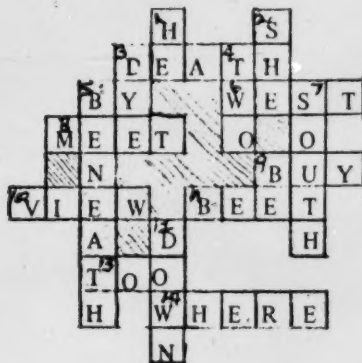
1. Opposite to she
2. Opposite to he
3. Sounds like die
4. Couple
5. Under
7. North and ----
9. Sounds like bee
12. Up and ----

Authors's Note

Having taught in New Zealand for several years, and used this type of exercise in slow, average, and above-average classes, I know that students enjoy this kind of challenge. The benefits are also very easily seen in social and classroom conversation.

All spellings used correspond to British forms because I will continue to teach in British speaking countries.

COMPLETED CROSSWORD:



CHINESE NAMES

(continued from page 3)

ways as well. Then, according to Wade-Giles, "Tan" would be more correctly spelled "T'an".

Above we stated that most Chinese names, family plus given, consist of three characters; but occasionally you find a one-character given name. This semester, in my class of twenty-two students, I have one such example.

The other day I had a conversation with a lady named Mrs. Wu, whose husband is of Shanghai origins. When she took a trip to Hong Kong, people there wondered why she didn't spell her name "Ng", which is the Cantonese equivalent of this name, which happens to mean "Five". Thus there seems to be some nebulosity even among the indigenes.

BOOK REVIEW

Julia S. Falk, *Linguistics and Language*.
Xerox College Publishing Company. 1973

paperback \$5.95

One of the most helpful and best organized of the recent rash of books on the 'newest' thinking' in the expanding field of linguistics.

Falk includes a good introductory overview of modern linguistics and, in the succeeding sections, covers such topics as dialect and slang usage, language change, and how all the components of a complete grammar work together to produce sentences in a given language.

Of special interest to language teachers are the two sections on language acquisition and teaching, covering possible application of psycholinguistic findings to language teaching. The presentation of language and literature in the primary, secondary, and college levels is discussed. However, in these sections the author loses some of her earlier objectivity. In the discussion of

language acquisition theories she is clearly persuaded by the rationalist view that exposure is a more important factor in learning a language than are drills of any sort.

Furthermore, her summaries often fall short of the anticipations one expects from the evidence she introduces. And, on a minor note, some of the works cited in the body of the text fail to appear in her bibliography.

Nevertheless, *Linguistics and Language* is highly recommended. Any dedicated language teacher could read this book without any linguistic background. All new terms are set off in bold face type and are clearly explained. The fields of linguistics and language are well covered and done in an interesting and easy to follow manner.

by William Gallagher

MOTHER GOOSE

(continued from page 2)

ary items have been explained.

The next step in the procedure is where practice in making decisions enters in. To play the game, however, the students must have a clear understanding of the rules of the game. First of all, the verse is considered "data" for the purposes of the game. Secondly, *all* and *only* the information contained in the nursery rhyme may be used to make decisions based upon statements the teacher will make about the rhyme. Students may not reach out into the real world for answers, but must stay within the confines of the "data".

To set the stage for the kind of interchange which ensues, let me first reproduce here our example rhyme:

Little Miss Muffet
Sat on her tuffet
Eating her curds and whey;

There came a big spider
Who sat down beside her
And frightened Miss Muffet away.

The rhyme, as noted above, constitutes a closed corpus of data. All statements by the teacher are based upon it, and must be responded to by the students in accordance with it. A further stipulation is that the information contained in the rhyme is true and not open to interpretation or question. The teacher then begins the questioning, which takes the form of statements by the teacher about something in the rhyme. The student answers "true" if the statement is true according to the rhyme; he answers "false" if the statement is false; and he answers, "I can't tell" if the statement is neither true nor false from the facts.

Here are some examples:

1. *Little Miss Muffet was married.*
(I can't tell)

Note that *was* is the key word here. Perhaps she was at one time and got divorced.

2. *Little Miss Muffet is married.*
(False.)

If she were married, her name would be

Mrs. Muffet.

3. *Little Miss Muffet enjoyed eating curds and whey.*
(I can't tell)

Actually Miss Muffet may have disliked curds and whey, but ate them because there was nothing else to eat.

4. *The spider bit Miss Muffet.*
(I can't tell)

The rhyme says nothing about the spider biting Miss Muffet.

5. *Maybe the spider bit Miss Muffet.*
(True)

Maybe the spider did bite her, so this is a true answer.

6. *Miss Muffet was afraid of the spider.*
(True)

Notice here the use of a synonym, *afraid* for *frightened* in the original.

The students in this particular class found this decision-making a real challenge. It is rather difficult to convey this feeling of challenge (and fun) on paper. At first, the students were jumping to conclusions in their decisions. For example, in *Old Mother Hubbard* I made the statement that the dog was hungry. One student replied, "true". I rejoined that we had no evidence that the dog was hungry. Quickly he said, "false". Again, I said he was incorrect. He then returned to his original stand and said that the dog was hungry because dogs are *always* hungry! This exchange brought a good laugh from everyone which indicated to me that something was happening to their auditing ability inasmuch as this incident occurred after about a week's daily work and if something similar to this had happened the second or third day of class there would have been little or no reaction—only a lack of understanding. Of course, the student had "broken" the rules of the game, but the exchange of language and obvious understanding was exactly what I was after.

The interjection of the word *maybe* presents a new challenge. *Maybe*, obviously, throws a whole new light on the interpretation of the 'facts' and is an example of something which can be used to foster

careful listening on the part of the students.

A variety of things can be taught either directly or indirectly by means of this technique. Suppose that in using *Little Red Riding Hood* (in this case our medium is a very short story rather than a nursery rhyme), we say that *Little Red Riding Hood* didn't like her grandmother. This is totally incomprehensible to a particular culture. In such a case, cultural pressure would most likely force an incorrect answer rather than one according to the 'facts'.

At first, it took a considerable amount of time to get through a single nursery rhyme. Boredom was never a problem, however, because of my pacing. The students knew the pressure was on them. This was evident from the speed of my dictation--the lines of the nursery rhyme poured from my mouth at a really rapid pace. Fumbling attempts were made to take down my dictation; eventually, the constant dinning of the words became more understandable, and they got the gist of what I was saying. Then my pencil or finger pointing to their omissions focused their ears on blank spots in their auding. Improvement in dictation was obvious over the few weeks this particular class met. Answers to my statements in the beginning were often wild guesses, but the keen motivation to understand me soon changed these wild guesses to reasoned answers with a high degree of accuracy. Spot reviews of previously covered materials demonstrated clearly that I couldn't 'fool' them anymore. The material was understood and understood well.

The cultural value of Mother Goose Rhymes for highly-educated young business executives is probably close to nil. Yet, I found the students were interested in the rhymes themselves and were interested to know something about them and their place in American culture, a side-effect which I had not anticipated. This side-effect caused discussion in class and all of this language exchange was extremely beneficial for the students.

A teacher might want to use materials other than the Mother Goose Rhymes and apply the same techniques. One could argue that using current materials would be more relevant, yet I felt that the very novelty of the rhymes was one of the most appealing features. The fact that improvement in auding could be brought about through the use of such seemingly

simple materials was intriguing to these sophisticated students.

An important point which experienced language teachers have recognized over the years and one which needs emphasis from time to time is that the teacher's attitude towards the materials being used is an extremely important variable in the whole teaching process. This is made dramatically clear in this particular instance. My attitude towards the Mother Goose Rhymes and the attitude I instilled in the students undoubtedly contributed significantly to the success of this technique.

Footnotes:

¹ I prefer this term to aural or listening comprehension in that it forms a parallel series with speaking, reading and writing.

² The class was a volunteer class held in the evening.

³ Anita E. Harnadek. *Critical Reading Improvement*. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1969).

International Communication Seminar

A one day International Communication Seminar will be held on the campus of The Church College of Hawaii in Laie, Hawaii on March 28, 1974.

Peter Strevens, Professor at Essex, England, visiting consultant at the East-West Center in Honolulu, will deliver the keynote address. Dr. Strevens is an internationally known ESL expert and author.

Dr. Larry Smith, coordinator of the ESOL Training Project at the East-West Center, will also participate.

Afternoon workshops in several areas will permit all interested persons to participate. An invitation is extended to all who would like to attend this seminar.

Inquiries should be addressed to

Dr. Jerry K. Loveland
The Church College of Hawaii
Laie, Hawaii 96762

HAVE IN ENGLISH

(continued from page 10)

2. If the auxiliary BE is used with the auxiliary HAVE, the past participle of BE is used following the form HAVE. (The -ing form of the verb follows BEEN).

Subject	Auxiliary	Be (p.p.)	Verb (-ing form)	
They	have	been	taking	a test for the past hour
He	has	been	reading	that book for a long time.
You	haven't	been	working	on your assignment.

3

3. The simple form of the auxiliary HAVE is used if a modal is used.

Subject	Modal	Auxiliary	Verb (p.p.)	
We	could	have	gone	to town with them.
You	should	have	done	your assignment.
I	may	have	forgotten	the address.

The third article of this series 'The Functions of Do and Can in English' will appear in the next issue.



TESL REPORTER

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Editor Alice C. Pack
Articles relevant to teaching English as a second language in Hawaii, the South Pacific and Asia, may be submitted to the editor through Box 157, The Church College of Hawaii 96762. Manuscripts should be double-spaced and typed, not exceeding six pages.

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CCH SEMINAR

INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION:

A SHORT COURSE IN HUMAN AWARENESS

by Kenneth Eugene Mann

Foreign students in the United States encounter a number of difficulties because of the cultural differences that they find. These difficulties range from cultural shock to total communication failure. Since the student body at the Church College of Hawaii consists of about 50% foreign students, intercultural communication is of prime concern on campus. On March 28, 1974, the first Intercultural Communication Seminar was held, exploring some of the problems, anxieties, and frustrations experi-

enced by the foreign students at the Church College of Hawaii. The participants of the Seminar took part in exciting discussions in which intellectually stimulating ideas were shared, resulting in an increased awareness for peoples of other cultures.

Dr. Peter Strevens, well known writer and professor of Applied Linguistics, served as the guest speaker for the Seminar. Dr. Larry Smith of the Cultural Learning Institute at the East-West Center in Honolulu introduced Professor Strevens. Other speakers, panelists, participants, and observers were administrators, faculty, and students at the Church College of Hawaii. The purpose of the Seminar was "to help meet the needs" of those "who might benefit from the accumulated experience and skills" of people who have specialized in the area of intercultural communication.

The barriers to intercultural communication are widespread and varied. Even though they are somewhat easy to identify, the barriers are difficult to bridge. Solutions are frequently a long time in coming because human behavior is somewhat whimsical. In addition, a particular solution will not solve all intercultural communication problems of a similar type. There is also the problem involving cultural traditions. Since culture is the man made part of the environment and is learned, ethnocentrism plays an extremely prominent role and may even become a barrier to communication. People do things in

CONTENTS

CCH Seminar in Intercultural
Communication: A Short Course in
Human Awareness
by Kenneth Eugene Mann . . . Page 1

The Tense Carrier in Two Kinds of
Wh- Sentences
by Yao Shen Page 3

Teaching Grammar Through Games
by Duane Hurst Page 4

The Functions of *DO* in English
The Functions of *CAN* and
WILL in English
by Alice C. Pack Page 14

that is the "correct" way to do them. Professor Strevens pointed out "that because society X does something one way and society Y does things another way, that of course does not mean that X is better or worse than Y."¹ In fact, he warned that one of the most "difficult things to stop doing is making value judgments about other people's cultures."² People need to recognize that cultures differ in standards of beauty, values, and attitudes. The successful intercultural communicator realizes that "all cultures have traditional values that have been institutionalized, and . . . knows something about those values."³ He must also keep in mind that "All cultures are valuable. No culture is inherently

Dr. Mann, who received his Ph. D. in Speech-Communication from Indiana University, has taught at Purdue and Indiana Universities and has published several articles concerning Intercultural Communication.

superior to any other. They are all different."⁴ As a result, each culture has something that it can contribute, something about which other societies can learn and by which others can be enriched.

As communication technology continues to be developed, the peoples of the world are coming more in contact with each other. Thus, the problems of intercultural communication are real and are "becoming increasingly important as the world shrinks."⁵ The conditions in this world, with the ever present threat of war in various parts of the globe, makes the need critical for "renewed and constructive dialogue, reasoned discourse among and between cultures, nations, and the accumulated experience and skills" of peoples."⁶

¹ Speech of Peter Strevens, *Intercultural Communication Seminar*, Church College of Hawaii, Laie, Hawaii, March 28, 1974.

² Strevens

³ Larry Samovar and Richard Porter, *Intercultural Communication, A Reader*, Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., 1972, 35.

⁴ Strevens

⁵ Strevens

⁶ L.S. Harms, *Intercultural Communication*, New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1973, 2.

It is essential for anyone involved in communicating on an intercultural basis to remember that "communication and culture are intertwined at almost every point." It is impossible to separate them. When an individual converses with someone of another society, he must find the common frames of reference or face the reality of failure in his communicative attempts. The situation is eased somewhat if both individuals are aware of the additional barriers that are present when each comes from a different culture. However, that is an extremely idealistic situation that rarely is reality. Most communicative attempts of the former type are doomed to failure almost from the beginning.

The more an individual knows and understands about a culture, the more likely he will be able to talk to someone of that culture without offending him. However, it is essential to "remember that cultural beliefs are not immutable. They may and very often do change and in differing rates."⁸ The learning of the language broadens our cultural experience. In fact, Dr. Strevens explained, "Multi-lingualism means, to some extent at least, multi-culturalism."⁹ But learning the language is not always possible or even practical.

The process of communication is not simple. That process is influenced, made more difficult or easy, by any number of factors. When people from the same culture talk to each other, "they do it on the basis of shared cultural beliefs."¹⁰ Anytime individuals communicate, orally or in writing, they convey information about themselves, their purposes for communicating, the degree of formality and informality, and the social relationships that exist. Each time another element is present in the communication process, the communicative attempt becomes more difficult. The intercultural situation is merely one additional factor that complicates the communicative process. It is necessary to keep in mind that when an individual operates according to one set of cultural values and his foreign friend operates under a quite different set of cultural traditions and values, problems will almost

⁷ Michael H. Prosser, *Intercommunication Among Nations and Peoples*, New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1973, x.

⁸ Strevens

⁹ Strevens

¹⁰ Strevens

(continued on page 12)

THE TENSE CARRIER IN TWO KINDS OF WH-SENTENCES

by Yao Shen

The significance of the positional relation of the tense carrier to the subject of the sentence in the formation of simple affirmative sentences, simple negative sentences, and tag-questions has been demonstrated in two previous articles (*TESL Reporter*, Vol. 7, No. 1 and No. 2). This same relation is significant in still another group of sentences which are the wh-sentences. Each of these sentences begins with a wh- word. The two kinds of wh-sentences under study are the wh-questions and the wh-statements. In each case, the

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wh- word occurs in the predicate of the sentence; and because of that, the wh- words included are: *what*, *who(m)*, *whose*, *which*, *where*, *when*, *why*, and *how*; *who*, which occurs as the subject of the sentence is excluded. Examples used are affirmative sentences.

A wh- question is formed in two steps. The first one is the formation of a simple yes-no question distinctive by the tense carrier (T) occurring before the subject (S) of the sentence, T+S.

	T	+	S	
a.	Is		John	studying?
b.	Was		Mary	leaving?
c.	Has		Paul	been teaching?
d.	Is		Alice	reading?
e.	Can		Joe	find the answer?
f.	Will		Mark	tell you?
g.	Would		Bob	have to know?
h.	Was		Pat	informed?

The second step is the occurrence of a wh-word before the yes-no question, Wh+T+S.

Wh-	+	T	+	S	
a.	What	is		John	studying?
b.	Who(m)	was		Mary	leaving?
c.	Whose(class)	has		Paul	been teaching?
d.	Which(book)	is		Alice	reading?
e.	Where	can		Joe	find the answer?
f.	When	will		Mark	tell you?
g.	Why	would		Bob	have to know?
h.	How	was		Pat	informed?

A wh- statement is also formed in two steps. The first one is the formation of a simple statement distinctive by the tense carrier occurring after the subject of the sentence, S+T.

S	+	T	
a.	John	is	studying.
b.	Mary	was	leaving.
c.	Paul	has	been teaching.
d.	Alice	is	reading.
e.	Joe	can	find the answer.
f.	Mark	will	tell you.
g.	Bob	would	have to know.
h.	Pat	was	informed.

The second step is the occurrence of a wh-word before the statement, Wh+S+T.

Wh-	+	T	+	S	
When		will	they	know something?	
Wh-	+	S	+	T	
a.	What	John	is	studying	
b.	Who(m)	Mary	was	leaving	
c.	Whose(class)	Paul	has	been teaching	
d.	Which(book)	Alice	is	reading	
e.	Where	Joe	can	find the answer	
f.	When	Mark	will	tell you	
g.	Why	Bob	would	have to know	
h.	How	Pat	was	informed	

The two kinds of wh- sentences differ from each other in two ways. First, they are distinctive according to the position of the tense carrier, that is, whether it precedes or follows the subject of the sentence.

(continued on page 8)

TEACHING GRAMMAR THROUGH GAMES

by Duane Hurst

In teaching Thai to native English speakers for the past two years, I have become aware of various difficulties which a second language presents. One prevalent problem is getting students to avoid injection of English grammar into the Thai. I also notice a similar obstacle is experienced by the Thais learning English.

Since the challenge has and still does exist, I offer several exercises which, though they may be classified as games, are designed to stimulate individual confidence and initiative, by a means of student evaluation, and most important, aid in rapid, accurate use of grammatical patterns of a second language.

First, I will list and explain the Thai games I use. These will be followed by a section dealing with modification of the game's principle to suit English patterns.

One cardinal rule must be observed: Grammar patterns must be taught before

in one row about six feet from a blackboard which is equipped with two erasers and at least two sticks of chalk. Draw a line down the center of the board.

At the top of the board write one grammatical pattern and write a different pattern on the other side of the board. Patterns should be abbreviated with symbols which are familiar to the students, for example:

T S O V*

An example of this sentence pattern would be:

/wǎn ní· phǒm· thǎ-n· sǎb· pǎrót/

"Today I eat pineapple."

Example:

S V O A*

/kǎw thǎ-n· sǎb· pǎrót· sǐ· khǎo· #

"He ate a green pineapple."

Once the instructor has written the two separate patterns on the board, he calls a student from each team to write a sentence following the pattern on his side of the board. A limited lexicon is desired, this

Duane Hurst, senior BATESL major at CCH, has taught Thai and English classes during the past two years.

any variation of the games are played!

A few ingredients are essential in producing an enjoyable and beneficial learning experience. They include:

1. Syntax or the grammatical patterns to be taught.
2. Teams or players: variations but never more than four per team.
3. Points: 5 if correct, -1 if wrong or not attempted. (may vary)
4. Time: start at 25 seconds and decrease to 10-15 seconds per pattern sentence.
5. Material: blank cards for writing down patterns, a blackboard and chalk for group games.
6. Purpose: To stimulate rapid thinking and correct sentence building in the target language and become familiar with the new grammar without reverting to native styles.

Writing Practice

Intended for evaluating and strengthening mastery of two or more grammatical patterns.

Teams of 2 or 3 students per team are seated

*T = time (today, now, next month, etc.)

S = subject (I, boy, he, book, etc.)

V = verb (speak, eat, walk, grab, etc.)

O = object (pineapple, ball, English, him, etc.)

A = adjective (delicious, large, white, torn, etc.)

Thai has five tones (arrow indicates pitch): mid, low, falling, high, and rising. Actually, there are two allotones in high position—the high and a high rising. The is found only with short vocoids, whereas the is found only with long (a held sound) vocoids. Examples: /nǎy/ = a question particle, /mǎy·/ = wood.

should be given before the beginning of the game. Students are told that they have 25 seconds in which to complete the pattern sentence; all sentences must follow the given pattern, be spelled correctly, and include the proper tonal symbols. Timing starts as soon as students are called.

I have been using this game for three months with groups of students and in each case observe that every student complains that 25 seconds is not enough time to complete a pattern sentence; however, after only three or four team turns, each student is able to accomplish a complete and correct sentence within this time limit. The time limit is reduced to 15 seconds per pattern after about five minutes of play. Students become extremely conscious of this time limitation.

I have found that:

1. Students adjust to the time element within minutes. One reason is because I merely smile at their complaints and keep the game going. They realize the only way to beat the other team and the clock too is to think and work, not only faster but also correctly.
2. Understanding of Thai patterns becomes well founded in one session, and students are confident in using the patterns outside the classroom. Exposure to and re-exposure to Thai patterns soon replaces initial attempts to incorporate English patterns into the new language.
3. Students gain greater speed and adaptability with continued practice.
4. Students enjoy studying by means of this and other pattern learning games. Previous to these new activities, the students were frequently drowsy since the class period was just after lunch and during the hottest time of the day. Since the use of these games, they remain alert as they actively participate.
5. The game becomes dull with repetition. To avoid this, a few unexpected twists are suggested:

- a. Unpredictably alternate sides of the board which team member use, such as:

turn 1: team A team B
 SVOA TSV O

 turn 2: team B team A
 SVOA TSV O

- b. Present new patterns once the students can manipulate the first.

Example:

turn 1: team A team B
 SVOA TSV O

 turn 2: team A team B
 TSV ? SAV O

 turn 3: team A team B
 SVOAT TSV O ?

(? = a Thai question particle such as /máy/ or /dây náy/)

- c. Combine both a and b.

turn 1: team A team B
 SVO ? TSV ?

 turn 2: team B team A
 SAVOA SVOT ?

 turn 3: team A team B
 SAVOA SVOT ?

In addition, a substitute lexicon may be used. 6. Giving points to the teams increases interest in the game. I give five points if the sentence follows the given pattern, is correctly spelled, and contains all the right tonal symbols; if even one error is made, the whole sentence is considered wrong. The reason for this is that one wrong tone or pronunciation can create a completely different meaning.

Examples:

/k^haw yù· glay ba·n^ˈ phǒm^ˈ/

Intended: He lives near my home.

/k^haw yù· glay ba·n^ˈ phǒm^ˈ/

One mistake: He lives far from my home.

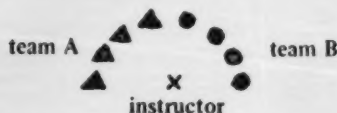
The team receives a minus point if no answer or only a fragment is given. This way students are encouraged to at least try to produce a sentence.

Adjusting for a large class, a tournament may be organized with several groups operating simultaneously.

Oral Production

The purpose of this oral exercise is to condition students to grammatical patterns in the second language. The student must answer rapidly--this necessitates thinking in the second language (a reflection of learned patterns.)

Teams of two to four students each are seated in a semi-circle as shown.



The instructor has a list of sentences which comply with one specific sentence pattern. (Different patterns can be taught or reviewed if there is time, a desire to do so, or if students show a firm grasp of mastering the pattern.) The pattern to be used is explained before the game begins. (With advanced students, no explanation is necessary.)

A question is read in English and then a student is called to give the Thai pattern equivalent. Careful selection of the lexicon is necessary so that sentences include only words which students have been taught.

The team may act as a panel in discussing among themselves what the correct answer is; however, since time is severely limited, it is unlikely much discussion will occur. The team member who receives the directed question must answer, even if other team mates supplied the answer to him.

Two examples of confusing sentence patterns are:

noun /pən/ N NA

(predicate nominative)(predicate adjective)

/phôm pən khon/ /phôm di/

I am a person. I am good.

The word /pən/ determines whether the pattern is a predicate nominative or adjective. If a student said /phôm pən di/, it would have no meaning. /phôm khon/ would make /khon/, a noun, become an adjective which would also have no meaning. These two patterns are often confusing to native English speakers. However, my students, after playing the pattern games, use them correctly.

Oral exercises require less time than writing; allot 15 seconds per turn for the first five minutes. The students will adjust to the pace and after five minutes, answers should be required within 10 seconds.

Five points are given if the answer is correct in pronunciation, tones, and translation of idea. A minus point is given if an error is made or if the team fails to answer. There are no "passed" questions.

If team A fails to answer correctly, team B can answer and scores 3 points if correctly answered and a minus 2 if wrong. No penalty is given if a team chooses not to use the second answer option.

The following variations of Written and Oral games may be used for both large and small classes with instructor supervision.

Writing Practice

1. Two persons. (dyad)

- Both will write 5 patterns on cards--one pattern per card. One or more patterns may be reviewed. Shuffle the cards to avoid boredom.
- One student flashes a pattern, the other has 15 seconds to write a sentence based on the revealed pattern.
- Other patterns may be added as time allows or as student ability dictates.
- Points: 5 if correct, -2 if wrong.

2. Individual testing.

The student will make a set of 20 grammatical pattern cards--some should be duplicates. Shuffle them and write a sentence based on the pattern within 15 seconds.

Oral Production

1. Two persons. (dyad)

- Both will list 5 sentences for each desired pattern to be reviewed.
- One student will read an English sentence, the other will answer correctly within 10 seconds--tones and pronunciation are important.
- Pattern changes are announced before giving the accompanying sentence. Advanced students are not warned about change of patterns.
- Points: 5 if correct, -2 if wrong.

2. Individual testing.

The student will have a set of 20 sentences which may follow one or more patterns. Sentences are on cards; the cards are shuffled and he has 10 seconds to translate. Answers are on the back of each card.

If the instructor elects to use the dyads he

will be free to wander around the room listening to each couple. This will also serve as a means of evaluation. Students should change companions after 10 minutes of review, thus avoiding boredom and becoming used to the same companion.

These activities are adaptable to learning any language. Listed are a few English patterns which may be taught by using these games.

Teaching the use of definite and indefinite articles.

1. Rules follow those of the Thai games as concerning teams, time, points, and procedure.
2. Several patterns: ID = indefinite article
DA = definite article Wh? = a WH form question.

ID S V DA O
A boy ate the orange

T DA S V ID O
Yesterday the
girl saw an orange.

Wh? V DA O
Who saw the hat?

Wh? V ID O
Why eat a cookie?

ID A S V DA O
An old hat struck the
lady.

DA S V DA A O
The horse kicked
the small boy.

Shorter patterns (for beginners)

ID S V
A man walks.

DA S V
The dog barked.

DA S V T
The girl came today.

T ID S V
Friday a friend
smiled.

For testing purposes a cloze test* may be given as a follow up exercise on any pattern taught.

Obviously, I have only scratched the surface of the pattern possibilities in teaching English. Patterns using verb tenses, plurals, possession, questions, etc. may be taught, focusing on any area where students have difficulty.

I challenge teachers to test these activities; I find them successful.

*See "Cloze Testing and Procedure." *TESL REPORTER*, vol. 6, no. 2, p. 12, Winter 1974.

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Articles relevant to teaching English as a second language in Hawaii, the South Pacific and Asia, may be submitted to the editor through Box 157, The Church College of Hawaii 96762. Manuscripts should be double-spaced and typed, not exceeding six pages.

MORE VERB HELPS

The next issue of the *TESL Reporter* (Vol. 7 No. 4 Summer 1974) will have students' guides to the use of verb forms in English, concluding the series of *How Verbs Function in English*.

Prior articles include:

"The Functions of *BE* in English"
(Vol. 7 No. 1, Fall 1973).

"The Functions of *HAVE* in English"
(Vol. 6 No. 2, Winter 1974).

"The Functions of *DO* in English"
(Vol. 6 No. 3, Spring 1974).

"The Functions of *CAN* and *WILL*
in English"
(Vol. 6 No. 3, Spring 1974).

HCTE TESOL ROUNDTABLE

CCH BATESL Majors participated with elementary, secondary and college teachers from the State of Hawaii in the HCTE TESOL Roundtable held April 27, 1974, at the Princess Kaiulani Hotel in Honolulu.

The program was under the direction of HCTE Executive Secretary Charles H. Blatchford, University of Hawaii and Mrs. Wilma Oksendahl, Central Division TESOL supervisor, was chairman of the program.



Stan Koki, program specialist for English for the Hawaii Department of Education (center), discussing TESL problems with Dr. Jay Fox, CCH (right), Dr. Ruth Crymes, University of Hawaii, and other interested teachers and students.



Roundtable discussions continued during lunch.



Students and teachers participate in TESL roundtable discussions.

TENSE CARRIER IN WH- SENTENCES

(continued from page 3)

Second, a wh- statement normally occurs as a constituent sentence embedded in a matrix sentence that may be either a statement or a question. In the following two examples, each matrix sentence in which the wh- statements are embedded is a statement, S + T. In the first example, the wh- statements are the subject of the matrix sentence, in the second, the object.

Example 1.

S		+ T	
Something		would be recorded.	
Wh-	+ S	+ T	
a. What	John	is	studying
b. Who(m)	Mary	was	leaving
c. Whose (class)	Paul	has	been teaching
d. Which (book)	Alice	is	reading
e. Where	Joe	can	find the answer
f. When	Mark	will	tell you
g. Why	Bob	would	have to know
h. How	Pat	was	informed

Example 2.

S		+ T	
They		will know something.	
Wh-	+ S	+ T	
a. What	John	is	studying
b. Who(m)	Mary	was	leaving
c. Whose (class)	Paul	has	been teaching
d. Which (book)	Alice	is	reading
e. Where	Joe	can	find the answer
f. When	Mark	will	tell you
g. Why	Bob	would	have to know
h. How	Pat	was	informed

A wh- statement may be embedded in a matrix sentence that is either a simple yes-no question or a wh- question. In the following two examples the wh- statements are embedded in yes-no questions, T + S.

Example 1.

T		+ S	
Would		something be recorded?	
Wh-	+ S	+ T	
a. What	John	is	studying
b. Who(m)	Mary	was	leaving
c. Whose (class)	Paul	has	been teaching
d. Which (book)	Alice	is	reading
e. Where	Joe	can	find the answer
f. When	Mark	will	tell you
g. Why	Bob	would	have to know
h. How	Pat	was	informed

Example 2.

T		+ S	
Will		they know something?	
Wh-	+ S	+ T	
a. What	John	is	studying
b. Who(m)	Mary	was	leaving
c. Whose (class)	Paul	has	been teaching
d. Which (book)	Alice	is	reading
e. Where	Joe	can	find the answer
f. When	Mark	will	tell you
g. Why	Bob	would	have to know
h. How	Pat	was	informed

In the following two examples the wh- statement are embedded in wh- questions, Wh + T + S.

Example 1.

Wh-	+ T	+ S	
Why	would	something be recorded?	
Wh-	+ S	+ T	
a. What	John	is	studying
b. Who(m)	Mary	was	leaving
c. Whose (class)	Paul	has	been teaching
d. Which (book)	Alice	is	reading
e. Where	Joe	can	find the answer
f. When	Mark	will	tell you
g. Why	Bob	would	have to know
h. How	Pat	was	informed

Example 2.

Wh-	+ T	+ S	
When	will	they know something?	
Wh-	+ S	+ T	
a. What	John	is	studying
b. Who(m)	Mary	was	leaving
c. Whose (class)	Paul	has	been teaching
d. Which (book)	Alice	is	reading
e. Where	Joe	can	find the answer
f. When	Mark	will	tell you
g. Why	Bob	would	have to know
h. How	Pat	was	informed

Only affirmative wh- sentences are used here; negative ones are not. The reason is that the position of the tense carrier and the subject of the sentence that distinguishes an affirmative wh- question and an affirmative wh- statement is the same as that which distinguishes a simple affirmative (yes-no) question and a simple

affirmative statement; the difference between each set of sentences is the presence and absence of the initial *wh*-word. This is similar to saying that a *wh*-sentence is one that begins with a *wh*-word. In the case of an affirmative *wh*-question, a *wh*-word precedes a simple affirmative question; in the case of an affirmative *wh*-statement, a *wh*-word precedes a simple affirmative statement.

Without *wh*-
 Question T + S
 Statement S + T

With *wh*-
 Question *Wh*- + T + S
 Statement *Wh*- + S + T

In the formation of a simple negative sentence, question or statement, the syntactic relation of the negative indicator, *not* or *n't*, is with the tense carrier. Neither *not* nor *n't* precedes the tense carrier; it follows it, though not always successively. The formation of a simple negative sentence, question or statement, is the same as that of a simple affirmative one; the difference between each set of sentences is the presence or absence of the negative indicator, *neg*.

Affirmative
 Question T + *neg* + S
 Statement S + T

Negative
 Question *neg* + T + S
 Statement S + T + *neg*

In the case of a negative *wh*-question, a *wh*-word precedes a simple negative (yes-no) question; in the case of a negative *wh*-statement, a *wh*-word precedes a simple negative statement.

Without *wh*-
 Question T + *neg* + S
 Statement S + T + *neg*

With *wh*-
 Question *Wh*- + T + *neg* + S
 Statement *Wh*- + S + T + *neg*

A negative *wh*-sentence, question or statement, can also be said to be formed the same way as an affirmative *wh*-one is; the difference between each set of sentences is the presence and absence of the negative indicator.

Question *Wh*- + T + S
 Statement *Wh*- + S + T

Negative
 Question *Wh*- + T + *neg* + S
 Statement *Wh*- + S + T + *neg*

The following summarizes the formation of *wh*-sentences, question or statement, affirmative or negative. Each *wh*-sentence finds its base in an affirmative sentence without *wh*-

Without *wh*-
 Affirmative:
 Question T + S
 Statement S + T
 Negative
 Question T + *neg* + S
 Statement S + T + *neg*

With *wh*-
 Affirmative
 Question *Wh*- + T + S
 Statement *Wh*- + S + T
 Negative
 Question *Wh*- + T + *neg* + S
 Statement *Wh*- + S + T + *neg*

Regardless of whether a *wh*-sentence is affirmative or negative, the feature that distinguishes the two kinds of *wh*-sentences with the *wh*-word in the predicate (and that is also our focus of attention in this article) is the positional relation of the tense carrier and the subject of the sentence.

It is that in a *wh*-question the tense carrier precedes the subject; in a *wh*-statement the tense carrier follows the subject.

Wh- + T + S = question
Wh- + S + T = statement

And this is the same relation that distinguishes simple affirmative sentences, simple negative sentences, and tag-questions.

References:

Yao Shen, "Supplementation of Opposites in Simple Predicate Expansion," *TESL Reporter*, Vol. 4, Nos. 1-4 (Fall, 1970-Summer, 1971).

Yao Shen, "Co-occurrence and Non-co-occurrence of Tense Carrier and Verb in Simple Predicates," *TESL Reporter*, Vol. 5, No. 3 (Spring, 1972), 6-7, 10.

Yao Shen, "Some Distinctions Among Four Grammatical Items in English," *The Hawaii Language Teacher*, Volume 15, Number 1 (March, 1973), 23-30.

BOOK REVIEWS

Linda Ann Kunz and Robert R. Viscount, *Write Me a Ream*.
Teachers College Press, Columbia University. 1973

62 pp. paperback

A book of controlled composition for adult education and Job Training students based on the writing of successive controlled steps originated by Gerald Dykstra and first introduced in the *Ananse Tales* by Dykstra, Port, and Port.

Although this book lists only twenty-six consecutive steps, each selection includes at least two and often up to seven different related changes, with often just one change for each, rather than one change repeated several times. Advanced students might be able to handle these numerous changes, but they could be confusing to beginning or untrained students. There are at least four selections for each step among the sixty

provided, some of which give a sample sentence for students to follow. It would be helpful to the student if each selection had examples, as some confusion might result from only directions. The teacher's handbook is excellent as it gives the rationale for the program and a step by step explanation for each exercise.

Teachers College Press has just announced additional publications of this nature in a series for grades 1 through 12. Hopefully these will move more slowly through the program and thus provide additional material at each step for students who may need the practice that the *Ananse Tales* and *Write Me a Ream* fail to provide.

Morton J. Gordon, *Speech Improvement, A Practical Guide for Native and Non-native Speakers of English*. Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1974.

Price: \$10.95

An excellent reference book for ESL teachers with clear explanations and numerous examples and exercises for all the speech sounds of English. It provides all the necessary material for class or individual work on speech improvement, using minimal pairs in initial, medial and final position. Sentences and exercises for utilizing these sounds for discrimination and production are provided. Suggestions are also given for helping students who are using native replacements for the different English sounds. Diagnostic procedures are explained and

suggestions given for individualizing students' work. Both sentences for articulation testing and evaluation forms are provided.

This book, with its complete index, should prove invaluable to teachers who have had little or no phonetic training in English, but I would recommend it only for advanced, adult ESL students or beginning college level native speakers. If tapes were provided these students could work with a minimum of teacher guidance.

Alice C. Pack

COMMUNICATION RIGHTS INFORMATION

Anyone who would like to be on a mailing list to receive information—possibly a year book and a newsletter (both are in process)—on the right of man to communicate in both the specific and very broad senses

is invited to send name and address to:

Dr. S. L. Harms
Communication
University of Hawaii
Honolulu, Hawaii 96822

SEMINAR IN INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

(continued from page 2)

certainly arise. For understanding to take place, both individuals must be aware that "every aspect of an individual's life is touched by the ideas, the customs, and the beliefs of one society."¹¹ When a person functions in another culture or communicates with someone from another culture, he must change or discard some of his habits and methods of behaving or intercultural communication failure will likely occur. Perhaps, Sitaram best clarifies this idea, "Intercultural communication does not take place in a vacuum."¹² The differences in cultural traditions and the variety of styles "is what makes intercultural communication both difficult and important."¹³

Dr. Strevens indicated that both verbal and non-verbal communication "is more delicate and more culturally loaded than we realize." This is true simply because "some of the most obvious beliefs of our own culture may turn out to be not at all obvious . . . to people of other cultures."¹⁴ However, beliefs are not the only problem causing aspects of cultural traditions. Kinesics or body language is also an area that is not without difficulty. There is no such thing as universal meanings for gestures and body movement. Instead, a perfectly acceptable gesture in one society is a means of insulting someone in another. Sitaram substantiates this by explaining that "an effective communication symbol in one culture can be an obscene gesture in another."¹⁵ The nature of communication between individuals of different societies is such that a person can commit such an offense quite innocently. He may still find himself in a precarious position if he uses the same communication gestures in Australia, for example, that proved successful in the United States.

¹¹ Strevens

¹² K.S. Sitaram, "What is Intercultural Communication," *Intercultural Communication, A Reader*, Larry Samovar and Richard Porter (eds), Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1972, 23

¹³ Harms, 5.

¹⁴ Strevens

¹⁵ Sitaram, 19

It almost seems unavoidable that when individuals of different cultures communicate, "the existence of different ways and customs and attitudes come to the surface."¹⁶ This often results in anger and hostility between all concerned. A natural consequence of anger and hostility is prejudice and discrimination. Teachers, at all levels, must especially be cautious and aware

Professor Peter Strevens, (pictured at right) with a Ph.D. in French and German and work experience at the University of Ghana, West Africa, holds professorships at the University of Leeds, University of Edinburgh and most recently the University of Essex, where he is professor of Applied Linguistics, as well as Director of the Language Center.

of the problems in this area.

Everyone has prejudices, but the research clearly substantiates that a person is not born with them. Prejudices emerge as the individual grows older. Dr. Ian Stevenson, a noted psychiatrist at the University of Virginia Medical School, explains that studies have shown "prejudice is slight or absent among children in the first and second grades. It increases thereafter." As we associate with other individuals, we are taught to look down on those that are different from us. "The job of the educated citizen," Dr. Strevens reasoned, "no matter where he lives or the society from which he comes, is to overcome his cultural prejudices."¹⁷ Although reasoned discourse is essential, there is also the problem of attitude. The barriers of prejudice and discrimination will continue to plague mankind until we learn to be more kind and show forth charity toward all individuals, groups and peoples.

Perhaps one of the most effective means to bring about better communication and understanding among peoples and individuals of different cultures is to bring them together in workshops and training sessions. This has produced interesting (but predicted) results in a number of experimental studies

¹⁶ Strevens

¹⁷ Strevens

conducted across the United States. It seems that generally the better we get to know and understand a people, the more we lose our prejudices and hostile feelings toward them.

One of the greatest fallacies in reasoning that we make is that understanding each other occurs when we talk with each other. However, talking with someone cannot be equated with communicating with someone. This is especially true in an intercultural communication situation. It is extremely important that we come to realize that the peoples of the world (even when using a single language) do not speak alike. Even more important is the realization that we do not think alike either. Every culture and society "has its own modes of thought and its own selected areas which constitute the subject matter it chooses to think about."¹⁸ In other words, every culture has its own value system by which it operates. It is the task of the educated person, according to

Professor Strevens, to "realize that it is part of the nature of mankind to have different cultures and to accept this and not count a difference as being something to disdain."¹⁹

The purpose of the above article was to summarize (in essay form) many of the ideas expressed in the Intercultural Communication Seminar at the Church College of Hawaii on March 28, 1974. Many of the ideas are supported by comments of prominent writers in the area of intercultural communication. A complete report of the Seminar, including the complete speech by Professor Peter Strevens, outlines of the workshops, and recommendations, is available upon request by writing Division of Communication and Language Arts, Church College of Hawaii, Laie, Hawaii, 96762. In order to help defray the cost of printing and postage please send \$1.00 with your request for the Seminar Report. Allow six weeks for delivery.

¹⁸ Robert T. Oliver, *Culture and Communication*, Springfield: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1962, xi.

¹⁹ Strevens

THE FUNCTIONS OF DO IN ENGLISH

by Alice C. Pack

Present forms		Past forms	
He (She, It)	does	He (She, It)	did
I (You, We, They)	do	I (you, We, They)	did

I. As a main verb (must be followed by an object or modifier 2).

Subject	Verb	Object	Modifier 2
I	did	it.	
She	did	the dishes.	
He	does		well in school.
They	did	the lessons.	
He	did	his work.	
You	did		well.

II. As an auxiliary (base form of verb follows do).

A. for emphasis (pronunciation accents the emphatic auxiliary)

Subject	Auxiliary DO	Verb	Object	Modifier 2
I	did	do	it.	
He	does	believe	it.	
We	did	do	our work.	
You	did	do		well.

B. with negative NOT (*not* is usually contracted to *n't*)

Subject	DO with NOT	Verb	Object	Modifier 2
I	didn't	do	it.	
He	doesn't	believe	it.	
We	didn't	do	our work.	
They	didn't	go.		
I	don't	remember.		
She	doesn't	live		here.
You	didn't	do		well.

C. with questions (positioned before the subject)

Do	Subject	Verb	Object	Modifier 2
Did	he	do	it?	
Does	he	believe	it?	
Do	you	remember?		
Does	she	live		here?
Did	they	do	their work?	
Did	you	do		well?
Did	it	come?		

III-A. DO in combination with modals and/or the auxiliaries HAVE and BE.

Subject	Modal	Auxiliary HAVE	Auxiliary BE	Verb	
They	can			do	better.
She		has		done	her work.
He	could	have		done	his work.
He			was	doing	his work.
They	must		be	doing	their work.
You	should	have	been	doing	your work.

B. Passive Construction.

Subject	Modal	Auxiliary HAVE	Auxiliary BE	Passive BE	Verb
The work				was	done.
The work	could			be	done.
The work		has		been	done.
The work	should	have		been	done.
The work			was	being	done.
The work	should		be	being	done now.
The work	could	have	been	being	done right now

THE FUNCTIONS OF CAN AND WILL IN ENGLISH

by Alice Pack

I. As main verbs (must have objects).

Subject	Verb	Object
I	can	vegetables.
She	can	fruit.
The dairy	can	milk.
He	willed	his property to his son.
She	is willing	everything to charity.

II. As modals (must be followed by a main verb).

Subject	Modal	Verb	
I	can	go.	
She	can	can	fruit.
He	can	drive	a car.
They	can	dance.	
He	can	will	his property to anyone.
He	will	go.	
She	will	can	the fruit.
They	will	will	their property to the school.
They	will	come	tomorrow.

III. As count nouns. (Singular form must have a determiner).

(Subject)	The can was empty.
(Subject)	The can is rusty.
(Object)	He put some sand in the can.
(Object)	I like these new cans.
(Subject)	The will is invalid.
(Object)	She made a will.

CCH NAME CHANGE -- NOW BRIGHAM YOUNG UNIVERSITY, HAWAII CAMPUS

On April 12, 1974 the Board of Trustees of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints and CCH's president Dr. Stephen L. Brower jointly announced that the Church College of Hawaii will be renamed Brigham Young University: Hawaii Campus.

The name change represents a step toward strengthening and consolidating the academic programs and goals of Church College rather than a change of direction.

Among factors listed as influencing this change is that people of many countries in Asia and the South Pacific consider the word "college" to signify a high-school level institution.

The affiliation with the Brigham Young University will also make the resources of the Y's 25,000 student body campus more readily available to our Hawaii institution.

No changes are planned on editorial policy or format for the *TESL Reporter*.



Dr. Dan W. Andersen, former Dean of Instruction at CCH, will head the new Brigham Young University: Hawaii Campus.

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CHILDREN'S LITERATURE AND ESL

by Sidney L. Jenson

The teacher is insulted, not the student. The teacher is bored, not the student. The teacher thinks the stuff childish, not the student. In a recent article (TESL Reporter, Winter 1974), Ted Plaister reported success in teaching English to twenty Japanese university graduates using Mother Goose

Rhymes. These sophisticated Japanese were not offended by Plaister's use of children's literature. They knew that the end, in this case, justified the means. But more important, the students found the Mother Goose rhymes exciting work. Hearing and analyzing these rhymes was fun and challenging.

In our reading classes at the Church College of Hawaii with our off-campus programs, we have used the Harrison method (Grant Harrison, Beginning Reading 1, BYU Press, 1972) for beginning readers. The early part of Harrison's program uses stories like: "This is a fan. This is mush. The fan is in the sun. The mush is in the sun. I mash the mush. The fan is fun." This is not very exciting reading for adult readers--adults, that is, who can already read. We have taught graduate students from Japan and Taiwan, Samoa and the Philippines, who could not read or who read very poorly. They found the reading of "This is a fan" very exciting--fun and challenging.

But as we trained people to use the Harrison method, we had many adults say, "But aren't the kids offended by this stuff?" None of the children I worked with, and none of the adults with whom I worked was offended.

There is a great concern and a growing demand for "adult" reading material for the lower grades. The Hawaii Department of Education, for example, is concerned about this "problem," they lack easy, adult reading materials. I do not see a serious problem.

CONTENTS

Children's Literature and ESL
by Sidney L. Jenson Page 1

A TESL Game for Constructing
Sentences Page 3

English Conversation Through
Classroom Dramatics
by William Gallagher Page 4

Carrying a Good Thing Too Far
by Walter P. Allen Page 5

Problems in Cloze Testing
by Roger K. Williams Page 7

Teaching English in Korea
by Bill Eggington Page 10

The Search for Unity
A Proposal of Instituting a
Universal Language to Help
Unravel World Problems
by Lopeti Foliaki Page 12

Tense Uses in English
by Alice C. Pack Page 19

My answer is, any material will work as long as it is the proper grade level for the student. It does not have to be "adult" material.

This semester I am working with nineteen second language students ranging in ability from fourth grade to seventh grade in reading ability. Some are college graduates from Japan and Taiwan; some have never been to high school. The program¹ we are following

Sidney Jenson, an Associate Professor of English at The Church College of Hawaii, has taught at Utah State University, Southern Utah State College, and the University of Utah. He received his PhD degree from the University of Utah in 1972.

has two major components:

a one hour intensive in-class section and a one hour extensive out-of-class section. The in-class reading material ranges between grades five and seven. As a group we discuss vocabulary, syntax, rhetoric, culture, and meaning. This material is usually "adult" material with controlled vocabulary.

In the out-of-class section we spend our time in the library, in the children's section. I select the material for the in-class work; the student selects the material for the out-of-class reading. The student is encouraged to find a book that interests him, and is relatively easy for him to read. For example, if he is now reading on a fifth grade level, he should find books in the second, third and fourth grade levels. The student is encouraged not to use his dictionary, but to make predictions or educated guesses from the context clues to discover work meanings. Some students will select books far below their measured reading ability; but they will read ten or twenty books in a week. Some of our students had never read an entire book, cover to cover, before. The finishing of a book, no matter how easy, gives them a sense of accomplishment and success they have rarely, if ever, experienced.

Our objective in this class is rapid, silent reading-not translation. Unless one reads at 200 words per minute or faster, he cannot really comprehend total meaning. If a student does not know almost all of the words on a page, he cannot really know

what a new word means, even with a dictionary. Reading is not a science; it is an art. None of us really knows how anybody reads. As Wallace Stegner has said, we attempt to analyze the experience of reading, but ultimately we cannot explain the reader's experience any more than we can explain the creative principle or act of the writer.²

Because of this, teachers really do not teach reading. Teachers encourage reading. Students must teach themselves. Teachers can teach some basic skills such as phonics or analysis of rhetorical modes. But ultimately we all must "learn ourselves" how to read. A teacher's main role is a guide, helping a student avoid what often is a boring and terribly frustrating experience. The teacher can help (1) help the student find material that is interesting; (2) help the student find material that suits his reading ability; and (3) encourage the student to read plenty of it. Plenty of reading, or what I call "mileage," is really the key. The only way to develop an extensive vocabulary is through reading; and obviously the only way to develop the habit of reading is by reading.

Our library at the Church College (Brigham Young University-Hawaii Campus) has many children's books which fulfill requirements one and two. I am trying to fill the third. For an hour each day, I and three other student assistants sit with the class in the library. The students come to us and ask any questions they like. For five hours a week we do this, and I have always been able to find a book I enjoy reading from the children's section. Maybe this says something bad about my interests and intellect. But what I think it really says is that I enjoy reading and that there are many good books in the children's literature section. With a little luck, the students also might acquire a taste for reading and develop a life-long craving for the stuff.

¹For a description of a similar program see David E. Lskey, "A Model Program for Teaching Advanced Reading to Students of English as a Foreign Language," *Language Learning*, 23, 169-85.

²Wallace Stegner, "One Way to Spell Man," *The Saturday Review*, 41 (24 May 1958), 43.

A TESL GAME for Constructing Sentences

by Alice C. Pack

OBJECTIVE: To give students practice in creating acceptable sentences using the articles, singular forms, plurals, and prepositions necessary in particular situations.

MATERIALS: Stacks of different colored file cards. One color indicates location, another color indicates time, another lists nouns or verbs (nouns are given in either singular or plural forms). White cards have determiners listed i.e., definite, indefinite, possessive, or demonstrative.

PROCEDURE: Game may be used for individual or team play. If teams are used there should not be over five members on each team and class members should be randomly divided into teams. Cards are shuffled and stacks of each are placed in front of each student or team. At the command *GO*, each student or one member of each team draws one card from each of the stacks and, using the lexicon which the cards indicate, writes his sentence on the board. Students are free to choose a verb if a noun is given on the card or a noun if the card gives a verb and may also add any other words, (nouns, verbs, connectors, etc.) that they desire. Students have the choice to use the noun drawn as either the subject or the object of the sentence. (If team play is used, all members of the team may

suggest or correct their team's entry before it is placed on the board). At the command *STOP*, all work must cease and then, in turn, each sentence is given aloud by the student who wrote it. If another student or the other team thinks another's entry is incorrect, a correction may be submitted. Corrections should then be made and scores tallied.

Students must have everything correct in order to score the 5 points given for a completed sentence. Corrections add 2 points to the individual or team score of the person or team suggesting the correction.

Time limits should be determined by the instructor on the basis of class proficiency (students should have some opportunity to succeed).

The prepositions may be added to the location on the cards (at home, in the garden, on the lawn, etc.) for very elementary students only, and should be eliminated as soon as possible so students will learn to use prepositions meaningfully.

Additional cards giving adjectives and adverbs might be added to increase the difficulty of the game as students become proficient in constructing simple sentences.

Also other cards giving the choices of affirmative and negative questions or statements may be added.

SUGGESTED LEXICON

First color Time	Second color Location	Third color Verb	White Noun	White
Yesterday	home	go	boy	
This morning	library	read	girl	definite (the)
from time to time	beach	play	baby	
frequently	lawn	come	basket	indefinite (a, an)
this afternoon	garden	walk	house	
last week	classroom	eat	boys	possessive (my, your, our, etc.)
next Friday	car	sleep	dog	
tomorrow	city	study	cats	demonstrative (this, that, these, those)
always	boat	like	fish	
Every Tuesday	room	swim	banana	
right now	table	dance	friends	

ENGLISH CONVERSATION THROUGH CLASSROOM DRAMATICS

by William Gallagher

Several students in the English Language Institute of the Church College of Hawaii this past semester, participated in an experimental approach to developing greater fluency in English conversation.

It is fairly established that language students acquire language skills by observation and participation. With this in mind, the conversation classes were asked to write and produce four classroom dramas or skits.

One student was chosen as the director. It was he who directed the writing and production of the drama. Under his leadership, with some limited teacher direction, the class outlined the plot and wrote the lines. In addition to taking roles, the ELI students arranged for props, sound

Before turning the students loose, the students wrote and acted out two short dramas in front of the classes in order to show the students how the writing and acting could be done.

In writing a classroom drama, it was found helpful for the teacher to suggest a "typical" student problem for the first scene, such as no money, no date for the dance, or a lost text book two days before the big test. The next scene would show a solution to the problem which in the final scene often proved to be a false solution.

For example, if the problem was "no money", the second scene had a friend loan him some money which, in scene three, was found to be counterfeit!

The students thoroughly enjoyed themselves in this activity. In addition to the English the students learned by memorizing their lines, their most valuable activity linguistically, was in the conversation necessary for the planning, writing, securing props, and providing invitations and programs.

William Gallagher is a MATESL graduate of the University of Hawaii. He has taught and lectured in Switzerland, Spain, Israel, California, and Hawaii.

effects, costumes etc. Invitations and programs were also mimeographed and distributed by the students. One group even appointed a business manager who "sold" tickets.



When Viliami and Susana took their "children" for a ride in the country, one by one the "tires" went flat and they had to hitchhike back to school.



David got a headache and was taken to the hospital where a nearsighted "doctor" removed his appendix!

CARRYING A GOOD THING TOO FAR

by Walter P. Allen

All teachers worth their salt discover effective lessons and teaching devices. A class becomes electrified and the activity of the learning process can be gauged in the happy, interested faces. Among the examples of such phenomena appearing recently in the *TESL Reporter* are Alice Pack's "Pronoun Chart" (reprinted in Fall 1973, p. 13) and Ted Haister's "Mother Goose and ESL" (the lead story in Winter 1974). Most of us have probably developed articles, at least in our minds if not on paper, describing our brilliant strokes of genius. (I speak from personal experience.)

Often the profession is the loser when these advances in teaching are not made available through the journals. However, there are also dangers when an idea is rushed to print too soon. The enthusiasm of the moment may be so dazzling that the innovator fails to pay attention to the warning signals. In the first flush of success there is the danger of imagining more power in the method than is justified. The new method may have filled an immediate need so beautifully that it is deemed adequate for other situations, which may be quite different. Also it may have been the enthusiasm of the teacher with a new gimmick, rather than any value in the method, which caused the increased learning. Again, striking success in the first use of the novel lesson plan may lead to the danger of ignoring difficulties which are inherent in the method. As long as the students are swimming so well, the teacher fails to note the rough water ahead. Most important, the success of a plan may lead the teacher into the danger of failure to teach essentials of the language which are not involved in the bright new method. Language is very complex, with many aspects, and mastery is only achieved by gaining control of all aspects, not of just one. Vocabulary, for example, must be supported by syntax, semantics, rhetoric, and all the other aspects of language.

A case in point is the two articles by Kelly Harris, Jr. which recently appeared in

the *TESL Reporter*: "Using Crossword Puzzles in TESL" (Fall 1973) and "A Lesson on Synonyms, Antonyms, and Homonyms for ESL Students" (Winter 1974). The Winter article begins with a fundamental misconception of language: "Sounds and meanings of words are most important in English" (p. 11). Although there is no *the* before *most*, the implication is clear that other aspects of English are *less* important. This is indeed very cavalier treatment of morphology, syntax, and other aspects of language. In fact, limiting vocabulary study to synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms will hardly provide complete coverage even for phonology and semantics. Fortunately the same issue of *TESL Reporter* also carries articles by Yao Shen on tense carriers and by Alice C. Pack on functions of HAVE.

Anyone who has taught ESL knows that students usually believe that a lack in vocabulary is their only obstacle to fluency. At the same time the teacher is aware that more control of word order, form classes (parts of speech), agreement, inflectional and derivational affixes, and prepositions is basic to improving communication in the new language. Obviously no lesson can teach everything, but conversely, no lesson can claim to be everything, or even the most important thing.

My wife once compiled a list of more than 250 pairs and triplets of homonyms in playing a game with her eight year old niece, so I consider her somewhat of an expert on the subject. But when I tried "I see him every day" and I sing a sea hymn every day," I drew a blank. At least in our dialect, sea hymns are not likely to cause confusion with see him, because sea hymns don't occur.

Some homonyms are real trouble-makers for people learning English, such as: there - their - they're, to - too - two, your - you're, and even words like bare - bear. These sets give our student enough problems. We don't have to invent others just to extend a pet

Some TESL methods, notably Basic English, strive for efficient teaching by avoiding synonyms. The beginning lessons of the Michigan materials, used to speak only of *pocketbooks*, never of *purses*, *wallets*, or *handbags*. Even these controlled vocabulary methods must eventually face the problem of introducing synonyms. ESL students are especially aware of the problem of synonyms because their bilingual dictionaries give a string of English words for every word of their own language. Since the students know the differences between synonyms in their own language, they are likely not to recognize them as such and think that it is only English which has "so many words with the same meaning."

The two problems with teaching synonyms are 1) showing the shade of difference between synonyms and 2) the suitability of different words in various contexts. An example of two words not really having the same meaning is Harris' use of *join* as a clue for *mate*. *The Concise Oxford Dictionary* (just like five American dictionaries I consulted) gives "join in marriage" as a definition of *mate*, v.t. 7 i. In the Fall 1973 crossword clue, (*in animals*) is added to join, but *The Concise Oxford* only tells of birds mating. Unless the class has read a story in which animals mate, the lesson on synonyms and the crossword clue are misleading.

Similarly, *slipper* - *shoe* - *sandal* may all mean *footwear*, but they are certainly not interchangeable. In fact, they are as different as *Cougar* and *Jaguar* are to an auto mechanic.

Earthly and *terrestrial* are examples of synonyms which are appropriate in different contexts. The Latinate *terrestrial* is most likely to fit in formal, scientific, or theological settings. At the other extreme, *earthly* can be used as an expletive (which does not have to be deleted): no earthly chance (*Concise Oxford*).

The makers of Alka-Seltzer used to advertise that their product contained *acetylsalicylic acid*, which is a scientific name for *aspirin*. The advertisement successfully used the unfamiliar term to deceive the public, for the term "belongs in a chemistry class or a pharmacopeia." Perhaps another company will try $C_9H_8O_4$.

Antonyms are defined as words of opposite meanings, but it appears that some

antonyms are more opposite than others. True antonyms are found in *hot* - *cold* and *up* - *down* (at least in the common use of these terms, though physicists or astronauts might disagree). But to say that the opposite of *man* is *woman* is to perpetuate a sexist stereotype. Why not give *boy*, or *dinosaur*, or *rock*? Obviously students will have to be trained in the type of partial

Dr. Allen, an Associate Professor at the University of Houston, is the author of "Easy Crossword Puzzles for Learners of English," (English Language Services, 1956), "More Easy Crossword Puzzles for Learners of English," (English Language Services, 1970).

opposition shown by pairs such as *man* - *woman*. Harris' example of *holy* - *unholy* opens a whole new bag of cats. *Possible* - *impossible*, *correct* - *incorrect*, and *happy* - *unhappy* immediately come to mind. Clearly a whole new lesson can be developed on negating words, training students to build their own antonyms. From there the study could proceed to the role of prefixes in English.

The usefulness of the words is another point which Harris has not weighed sufficiently in his search for synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms. One way of determining the usefulness of a word, and so whether it should be taught earlier or later, is to find how often it is used by people who speak English. A considerable body of factual evidence on this point is available to a lesson planner in any of several frequency counts. Although frequency counts do not prescribe an absolute order for learning words, yet they do give some idea of what words should be learned first and which can be put off till later.

The puzzle on page 11 of the Fall 1973 *TESL Reporter* has many words in both the clues and the answers which were found to be used most frequently in the 18 million words counted for the Thorndike and Lorge study published as *The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words* (New York, 1944). (I refer to this book because it is within reach.) Less frequently used words include the following:

from the second thousand: unite, cease, holy, beast, journey;
from the third thousand: mate, sacred, preach, climate: (continued on page 18)

PROBLEMS IN CLOZE TESTING

by Roger K. Williams

Many authors and teachers have hailed cloze tests as the easiest and best method of testing the reading skill. No doubt this type of test *can* be the easiest. A teacher chooses a passage from a book; types it on a page deleting every sixth, seventh, or *n*th word, and requires his students to fill in the correct answers. He may give credit for only those answers which match the original, or he may give partial or full credit for "acceptable" answers, those which fit the slot semantically.

Whether cloze tests are the best method of testing the reading skill is another matter. Some cloze tests can be very good. Others may contain flaws which affect the validity and reliability of the tests. Teachers who are considering using this method should be aware of several problems. In avoiding these problems, they may find that good cloze tests are about as easy to construct as good comprehension (paragraph and questions) tests.

The first problem is that cloze tests only partially parallel the reading process. Reading is primarily the decoding of written symbols into meaning. Filling in blanks requires encoding or production. In reading regular prose, both native and non-native readers, of course, often encounter unfamiliar words or phrases, and must employ inferential encoding procedures to arrive at a meaning, but if there are too many unfamiliar words or phrases encoding or filling in blanks correctly becomes quite difficult and frustrating. Therefore, a cloze test may approximate a situation in which students are reading material far beyond their level more than a situation in which they are reading material on their level.

Because cloze tests require production, scoring can become a problem if the teacher chooses to give credit or partial credit for answers which, though different from the original, are "acceptable". It is quite possible that students may write words which are acceptable semantically but not grammatically. Consider these: "within

one year *between* each other," "stuck *in* home a lot," and "the older twins are being *eaten* at the same time the younger . . ." The students who made these responses may have understood the passage perfectly, but

Roger Williams has taught ESL for the past two years at Pahlavi University, Iran. Previous to that time he taught in the English Language Institute at the University of Guam.

how much credit should each response be given? Is this a grammar test or a reading comprehension test or both?

One author suggests that a cloze test should be given to native students first and that non-natives would then be graded according to the native responses.¹ This is certainly a possibility when testing very advanced non-natives, but the "errors" cited above would likely not be made by natives and yet are in a sense acceptable. So this matter of grading responses is not easily resolved.

The second problem is that there seems to be a special talent involved in being successful on a cloze test. Carroll maintains that because natives vary widely in their ability to perform well on cloze tests and because this ability correlates with their ability in second-language cloze tests, their scores in the latter should be adjusted when used in comparison with the scores of other students.² He further states that

cloze procedure tests depend to a considerable extent upon cognitive ability variables which are completely extraneous to foreign language success. That is to say, even an individual who has good mastery of a foreign language may not be able to demonstrate this mastery on a cloze procedure test if he lacks certain other intellectual qualities such as reasoning ability and ideational fluency.³

Carroll concludes that because success in the usual types of cloze tests is independent of

language proficiency and more dependent on intellectual functioning, cloze tests should be modified if used. The blanks should be, he suggests, linguistic cues rather than crucial semantic cues; or they could be multiple choice items or items with part of the word present.⁴

This brings us to the third problem, the blanks themselves. One reason that natives vary in their ability to fill in the blanks is that when every *n*th word is deleted, a high number of crucial content words may be deleted. Often these cannot be supplied by looking at the context. Sometimes a student who is quite familiar with the subject matter can fill in these crucial content words while those lacking his special background cannot.

Deleting every *n*th word often causes no problem in an easy passage with high redundancy, but other passages should perhaps receive a different treatment. It might be better for test constructors to delete function and content words which should be apparent from context. For example, suppose a teacher is selecting a passage to use as a cloze test and he finds an article on the speed of sound. It is on or slightly below his students' reading level and is long enough to have sufficient blanks for an accurate measure. Part of the passage reads:

The speed of sound in air at ordinary temperatures is about 1,100 feet per second, which is about one mile in five seconds, or about 700 miles per hour. The speed of sound increases slightly with a rise in temperature and falls with a decrease in temperature. It is not affected by the pressure of the air.⁵

What problems can be anticipated? First, there is the problem of subject matter. Students who have not previously been exposed to these concepts may do poorly. Secondly a good physics student may be able to supply the numbers, whereas other students might find them or any calculations difficult. If it is determined that this subject is no problem for this particular group and it is decided to leave in the numbers, which words could be omitted? The phrase "the speed of sound" is repeated, and students should reasonably be expected to supply any one of those four words by comparison to the other phrase. The phrases "increases . . . with a rise in temperature" and "falls with a decrease in temperature" are parallel contrasting ideas. The second *with* and

temperature should be easy to supply. ² should one of the four words, *increases*, *rise*, *falls*, *decrease*. Of course, one must expect equivalent content words in this case *drops*, *decreases*, or *declines*, instead of *falls*, for example. Perhaps the third *about* could be deleted.

It would seem that native speakers should be able to get a high or perfect score on a cloze test designed for non-natives. If they do not, perhaps factors besides reading ability are being tested. Here is another example which is part of a longer passage. Natives can fill in the blanks readily; intermediate non-natives might vary according to reading ability.

As the _____ circled over the airport, everyone sensed _____ something was wrong. The plane _____ moving unsteadily through the air, and although the passengers had fastened their seat belts _____ were suddenly thrown forward. At that moment, the air-hostess appeared. _____ looked very pale, but was quite calm. Speaking quickly but almost in a whisper, she informed everyone that the pilot had fainted. _____ asked if any _____ the passengers knew anything _____ machines—or at least how _____ drive a car. After a moment's hesitation, a man got up and followed the _____ into the pilot's cabin.⁶

In short, passages should be carefully chosen according to passage level and content, and blanks might be chosen according to the ease with which they can be filled by looking at the context or the structure patterns.

Although this method of testing reading has yet to be perfected, cloze tests can be a useful supplement to vocabulary tests, tests of grammatical structures common to written English, and passages with questions. The teacher who experiments with cloze tests should find them an exciting and inventive way of testing the structural aspect of reading.

⁴Donald E. Darnell, "The Development of an English Language Proficiency Test of Foreign Students Using a Clozentropy Procedure," Final Report, Research Project No. 7-II-010 (Boulder, Colorado: University of Colorado, October 1968), pp. 1-10.

²John B. Carroll, *An Investigation of Cloze Items in the Measurement of Achievement in Foreign Languages*, College Entrance Examination Board Research and Development Reports (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University, April 1959), p. 52.

³*Ibid.*, p. 114.

⁴*Ibid.*, p. 117

⁵G.C. Thornley, *Easier Scientific English Practice*. (London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1964), p. 68.

⁶L.G. Alexander, *A First Book in Comprehension, Precise, and Composition*. (London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1965), p. 61.

NEW BATESL REQUIREMENTS

Changes in the curriculum for the BATESL degree at the Brigham Young University, Hawaii Campus have been approved and new courses will begin September 1974. Complete details of this program will be given in the Fall 1974 *TESL Reporter*.

BOOK REVIEW

Patricia E. Matthews and Sabattat Tura, *Practice, Plan and Write: Guided Composition for Students of English, 1, 2*. American Book Company. 1973 paperback. \$1.92

The purpose of Matthews and Tura's new text, *Practice, Plan and Write*, is to give students of English as a second language a controlled guide to composition. Each of the sixteen units of Books 1 and 2 are divided into four major parts, including 1) a Model Paragraph, which the students repeat aloud after the instructor, and which introduces new grammatical structures for the students to practice and base their writing upon; 2) Language Practice, which presents basic sentence patterns that accustom the students to acceptable grammar and syntax; 3) Form and Organization, which includes tips on good paragraph writing as well as rules for punctuation and capitalization; and 4) the Unit Writing Assignments, which are patterned after the Model Paragraph at the beginning of the unit. The books are designed for more advanced students, "who have acquired oral control of the most basic grammatical patterns and the vocabulary of English," but unless students have also had a good deal of experience in reading and writing English, they may have trouble with the material.

The basic idea behind the text is that once students have become familiar with the rudimentary and repeating patterns of the English language, they can substitute

words and phrases into those patterns and thus generate their own sentences. Units consistently capitalize on this idea and the patterns become more complex as the units progress. Sentences illustrating new formulas are boxed off in phrases, allowing the student to see the similarities of the substitutions. The exercises then challenge the student to substitute correct word forms in sentences. Paragraph assignments throughout the books encourage the student to pattern his writing after the Model Paragraphs. It is a carefully controlled approach which allows the student little freedom in experimentation or creating. But it is also a successful approach, and the positive reinforcement for the student as he works so much with the proper forms of the languages is invaluable.

Practice, Plan and Write is a well thought out and very practical text that presents a lot of English language patterns very simply, and reinforces them with examples and exercises that will lead any diligent student to greater skill with the language.

Steven Goldsberry

TEACHING ENGLISH IN KOREA

by Bill Eggington

In a recent "Needs Assessment for Korea" discussion held at the Church College of Hawaii, it was pointed out quite forcibly by Koreans present that there is a great need for a strong TESL programme in Korea. Learning spoken English is looked upon as a method of social and economic advancement. At the present time, this desire is being channeled into semi-effective to ineffective programmes; thus frustration is common among Korean English learners. This paper will be a general overview of the problems and solutions that a TESL teacher would face if he were to teach in Korea.

As already stated, there is high motivation to learn English. Korea is becoming more and more westernized, and in particular, Americanized. English speaking companies are moving into many aspects of Korean life, thus causing a need for English speaking Korean businessmen and technicians. Higher education is also moving in the direction of western thought and thus western influence and inter-communication. Because of this, the English teacher will never lack good, highly motivated students.

However, many Koreans find English a very hard language to master. Hei Sook Lee, in an article in "Language Learning", says that

since Korean people who are now learning English, or intend to learn it, have the preconception that it is a very difficult language, they usually feel discouraged. The author believes it is urgent to destroy this preconceived notion.¹

He states that one of the most effective methods of overcoming this discouragement is to start off the English programme with English cognates that are very common in the Korean language. I will discuss cognates later in this paper.

The English learner in Korea also must overcome a series of man-made handicaps before he can begin to master English. His

largest problem is "forgetting" the English he has already learnt from the Government Educational systems. Many of the teachers of English cannot speak or understand the spoken form of the language they are teaching.² If spoken English is learnt in Korea without the assistance of a native speaker, it is almost a separate language again from English or Korean. Korean English teachers, knowing their inadequacy in spoken English, often compensate by turning the class into a translation exercise from one language to another, and to get the flavour of a true academic exercise, they explain the grammatical "niceties" of the language.³ This

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makes the student an expert in grammar, but unfortunately, that is as far as his English abilities go. There is also a scarcity of good, "modern scientifically acceptable teaching materials."⁴ Most of the books dive into traditional grammar explanations and use outmoded concepts. Many of the books are based on British English of the 1950's, or equally "strange" dialects of American English. All these things hinder the student in his ability to learn the language.

Perhaps the only real solution to these problems would be an influx of trained native English speakers for a period that would allow Korean teachers to become masters of their field. Of course before the trained native English teachers could be effective, they would have to know certain things regarding the Korean language and especially Korean customs. Mari-Luci

² James W. New, "English Teaching on the Rim of Asia," in *Language Learning*, 1963, 8, No. 3, p. 69.

³ New, p. 69.

⁴ New, p. 69.

¹ Hei Sook Lee, "English Korean Cognates" in *Language Learning*, 1958, 8, No. 4, p. 57.

Jaramillo has stated that she believes "that wherever we are teaching, at home or abroad, understanding cultural differences is just as important as having an excellent curriculum, knowing appropriate technique, or having adequate materials in the classroom."⁵

In Korea the classroom, student-teacher relationship is quite different from our more relaxed atmosphere. Korean students are used to a strict teaching technique with little emphasis on discussion. In this kind of atmosphere "sometimes the informality of North Americans is interpreted to mean that we do not really much care about anything."⁶ So the teacher should be careful of creating the wrong atmosphere and be aware of cultural taboos that exist in the culture of his students. This, however, does not mean that the teacher should become completely "Koreanized" in his teaching methods. Language is so closely related with culture that we should not only teach English, but also the culture of our Western ways. It is a good thing to discuss cultural differences in the classroom. This will bring about good communication and understanding and also prepare the students for an experience in the English speaking world.⁷

As stated, the TESOL teacher should also be aware of certain problems caused by the Korean language that will influence his students' English learning ability. The Korean language uses a "semi-syllabary" as its phonetic basis.⁸ As may be expected, "it is difficult to teach English pronunciation to Koreans, because the phonemes are different phonetically in English and Korean."⁹ Following is a Korean-English Phonemic chart which shows certain important differences in the phonemic structures of

the languages.

The English /t/ has a voiced flapped allophone in certain positions. The English vowels have allophones of different length. Phonetically English /e/ and /o/ have an upward glide.¹⁰ As can be seen, the following English sounds do not exist in Korean: labio dentals (f), (v); interdental (θ), (ð); alveolar fricative (z), also (ʒ) does not exist. Koreans front the following sounds (t), (d), (s), (n) and (r). Koreans have great difficulty with the English rounded [r]. The Korean [r] is unrounded. In Korean aspiration is a significant phonetic feature, whereas in English it is not.¹¹ So phonetically, there are some major difficulties to be overcome.

One way of doing this would be to concentrate on English-Korean Cognates, thus bring about confidence for the beginner. Hei Sook Lee has compiled a list of cognates, but since then it has no doubt changed.¹² However, this list would still be valuable in overcoming the initial lack of confidence in a student. Naturally, cognates such as 'gas' and 'card' are pronounced in the Korean fashion - kasu and kardu, but with practice, a good English pronunciation could be created; An interesting morphemic feature of the cognates is that they are only used in the singular form. In Korean there is no morpheme like the English bound plural morphemes -[s]. There is the plural morpheme -[dul] that can be attached to nouns, pronouns or adverbs, but it can be omitted if the sentence or phrase contains a word which is plural in meaning; [han caek] - one book, [du caek] or [du caek dul] - two books. Thus, the cognates are only used in the singular form. Other morphemic features of the language exist that the TESOL teacher would be wise to know so he can be an effective teacher.

Korean sentence order has the verb at the end of the sentence with the next most important word next to it, and so on. Usually, if all words are of nearly equal importance, the order is time, subject, place.

(continued on page 23)

⁵ Mari-Luci Jaramillo, "Cultural Differences in the ESOL Classroom," in *TESOL Quarterly*, 7, 1, Mar. '73, p. 57.

⁶ Jaramillo, p. 57.

⁷ Jaramillo, p. 57.

⁸ Allen D. Clark, *Korean Grammar for Language Students* (Seoul: The Christian Literature Society of Korea, 1965, p. 6.

⁹ Lee, p. 63.

¹⁰ Lee, p. 64.

¹¹ Lee, p. 64.

¹² Lee, p. 69.

THE SEARCH FOR UNITY - A PROPOSAL OF INSTITUTING A UNIVERSAL LANGUAGE TO HELP UNRAVEL WORLD PROBLEMS

by Lopeti Foliaki

Ed. Note: Although only indirectly related to the teaching of English as a Second Language, this article should prove interesting to all who work with Second Language English speakers.

"Speech, which sets man apart from the rest of creation and is his greatest social asset, serves paradoxically to separate him from his fellow humans. What amounts to a binding tie inside the family, the tribe and the nation, acts as a barrier between those groups and others constituted a short distance away."

This quotation from a lecture by Professor Jose Mariel, of the College of the City of New York, shows the essence of the language problem. Men are not much better than deaf-mutes when they meet humans belonging to a different language group. To bridge the gap from one language group to another, a bridge language, a Universal language is needed.

In San Francisco, on June 25, 1965, the twentieth anniversary of the United Nations, the President of the General Assembly declared: "We must give tools to man to enable him to make a better world for his children." What tool could be more basic than language? President Lyndon B. Johnson, speaking immediately afterwards on the same occasion, named ignorance, together with hunger and disease among "the ancient enemies of all mankind." Ignorance must be overcome by knowledge and understanding. This means, first of all, literacy and education, but it also means the ability to communicate with people beyond the narrow borders of countries and nations.

The language problem has many facets. Its implications in education, science, business and politics are innumerable. There has been a growing awareness of the fact that increased emphasis on foreign language study, though useful and urgent, will not suffice, but that for worldwide use a prac-

tical, neutral and easy-to-learn world language is necessary.

The use of five official languages by the UN points up the inherent difficulty of a situation wherein all major addresses have to be interpreted from the language in which they are made into four other tongues, and all important documents have to come out in quintuplicate, (English, French, Spanish, Russian, and Chinese) at the cost of enormous amounts of time labor and money.

The language difficulties at all international conferences are enormous. The selection of participants is strongly influenced by linguistic considerations. Many otherwise perfectly qualified persons refrain from attending conferences because they feel that their knowledge of foreign languages is inadequate. Many countries send delegates who are good linguists, though their other qualifications are sometimes only second-rate.

A great variety of devices has been used to overcome the language obstacle. Speeches are often secured in advance, translated into different languages, mimeographed, and distributed among delegates. Sometimes members are seated according to language groups and asked, after each speech, to withdraw into neighboring rooms where translations in several languages are given simultaneously. Obviously, discussions and proceedings are very slow with these translations, because the whole conference has to wait for the translator who is slowest. Other delays are due to the fact that people, talking in a foreign language with which they are not thoroughly familiar, are likely to need more time for making themselves clear. Their speeches become stammered, long-winded, repetitious, and hard to follow, consuming the nerves as well as the time of

their fellow delegates. (It is an art to express oneself briefly, forcefully, and concisely, even in one's own language.)

The most important technical advice invented for the facilitation of international conferences is the Filene-Finlay Speech translator, sometimes called the "earphone system." In this system interpreters for different languages are placed in glass-enclosed booths and talk into microphones while the speaker is delivering his speech. The seats of the delegates are equipped with earphones connected with the translators' microphones. By pressing a button, a delegate can choose the language in which he wishes to hear the speech.

This system has limitations and disadvantages. The most serious obstacle lies in the physical and nervous limitations of translators. It is more difficult to listen to a speech through a machine than it is to listen to the interpreter directly. Mistranslations slip through more easily than with other systems under which there are always a few persons in the audience who have understood the original speech and can check the translator and obtain rectifications when serious mistakes occur. It is also rather disconcerting to see a speaker talking and gesticulating while hearing through the earphone a translation, not of what he is saying, but of what he said a while ago.

The Filene-Finlay system is of no help outside the assembly hall. At most international conferences, personal contacts between delegates from different countries are more important than speeches and official discussions. It is a sad, but unfortunately a common experience, to see delegates take their meals and spend their leisure hours in the company of colleagues from their own countries.

Another deterrent is the high cost of the Filene-Finlay system. Theoretically the

number of languages in which simultaneous translations are possible is unlimited. Practically, however, only four or five, at the utmost six, languages can be used as it is enormously expensive to make arrangements for such potential needs as translation from Polish to Chinese, from Italian to Norwegian or from Portuguese into Bulgarian. So the Filene-Finlay system, even under the most efficient management, is unable to eliminate the monopoly of a few major languages.

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Neither the Filene-Finlay Speech Translator nor any other system of translations can overcome the basic inequality between delegates speaking their mother tongue and those who have to express themselves in a language not their own. Therefore the need for a universal language. A universal language will not of itself prevent international conflict, but it will remove areas of deliberate or accidental misunderstanding. It will clear up muddled situations. Above all, it will aid man in his search for the truth, now so frequently distorted by factors which, though often planned, are almost as often of a fortuitous nature.

Great as is the use of translators and interpreters by diplomatic and governmental agencies, these agencies are far outstripped by business houses dealing with imports and exports. Government agencies prepare dictionaries and phrasebooks for the fields that concern them; but they cannot even begin to vie with the numerous technical, legal, financial, professional and commercial

lexicons that are produced each year for the exclusive use of firms engaged in private enterprises involving two or more countries.

As the volume of international trade grows, the need for linguistic understanding becomes greater. With the increase in number and variety of products, with the greater complexity of machinery and equipment that is sent out from one country to another, the need for precision and accuracy increases. Haphazard translations of business letters and written instructions for the use of machinery, casual interpretations of arrangements between importer and exporter, are no longer sufficient, in fact, they may be extremely harmful.

Our systems of interpretation and translation improve as time goes on, and as more and better commercial and technical dictionaries become available. Yet it is a curious fact that they always lag behind the need. The specialized vocabulary of trade and technology changes rapidly in each language, innovations appear everyday, and the dictionary that was adequate ten years ago is hopelessly behind the times today.

Add to this the local differences of terminology within what passes for one language: a term used by an Englishman in a certain meaning may have an entirely different meaning to an American; the Spanish of Spain and that of Argentina, though basically the same language, may use altogether different terms for an object, product, or mechanical part. The complexity of present-day business terminology on the international level thus becomes even more apparent.

A single language, carefully governed by a single international language academy would prove an inestimable boon to trade among nations. It would eliminate uncertainties along with the multiplicity of language forms and translations. The importer in Tonga would know at once and precisely what the exporter in San Francisco has to offer. There would be untold economy of time, effort, money and manpower.

From the standpoint of the host country, the tourist is almost invariably a gift from the gods. He brings in and spends foreign currencies which would be difficult to procure by trade, save at the cost of cutting imports and pushing exports to the point where it hurts.

If there were a language common to the tourist and the countries he sees, the possibility of pleasant contracts, conversations, enlightenment as to local conditions and problems, and absorption of the native culture would be enhanced at least tenfold. For lack of such a tongue, the tourist must go begging for someone who speaks his language.

Religion is a field in which the multiplicity of human tongues has always been recognized. Ever since the command laid upon the Apostles to go forth and preach in different tongues, missionary work has been done with missionaries acquiring the language of the locality to which each is assigned. It might even be claimed that the original linguists were missionaries, since in many instances it is to them that we owe grammars, dictionaries and Bible translations of many obscure tongues.

What would be the impact of a universal language upon churches? It would undoubtedly facilitate their work on a purely material plane, making accessible to them, without linguistic effort and training on their part, masses of humanity which are at present hard to reach.

A common language would serve to clarify differences in interpretation of doctrine which ultimately lead to confusion and religious strife. But above all if man is truly to be set free he must have access to truth. The barriers which cut him off from this truth are often not of his own making and universal language would serve as a bridge, enabling him to find truth more readily.

Literary works are normally produced in one of the many existing literary tongues. If they are found to have merit, then they are translated and republished in other languages. This is a slow, expensive and unsatisfactory process. It is often the case that works of true literary merit go untranslated by reason of limited commercial appeal. It just as often happens that a work which is a literary gem in the original loses a great deal of its flavor in translation because the work is handled by a translator who is technically, but not literarily competent. True literary translation is not a trade, but an art.

If is one of the most standard arguments of opponents of the international language that its establishment will lead to a loss of literary values. Actually a universal tongue would lead to an enhancement of such

values. Instead of the present hit or miss system, every book appearing in a national tongue would also appear in a single translation which would serve the entire world.

It would be far easier to create a body of *truly competent literary translators* into the universal language than it is to secure suitable translators into the very numerous literary languages of the world.

The argument that a universal language not having grown and developed out of centuries-old human experience would be unsuited to carry literary values is raised only against constructed languages. But proponents of this fail to remember that a constructed tongue, evolving out of existing languages, would not be subject to the handicaps of having to evolve painfully out of a material into a spiritual civilization. It would rather spring full-grown out of its parent tongues-like Minerva out of the forehead of Jupiter-and at once fall heir to the blended cultural values and literary devices of the most developed languages. That this is both possible and true is proved by the most thoroughly established of our present constructed language, Esperanto, in which a considerable body of literature, both original and in translation, has already appeared.

Since the seventeenth century days of Descartes, Dalgarno and Wilkins, it is estimated that six hundred different proposals have been advanced for the world's linguistic troubles. The proposals can be classified into five groups. First comes the proposal to use a given language just as it stands. Select a given language, make it the official international tongue throughout the world, put it into the schools on a parity with the national languages, and let it serve, just as it is, for the purposes of global communications.

Next come suggestions to use two or more natural languages, either as zonal tongues to serve certain areas of the earth, which would not give us an international language, but a series of geographically separated international languages or to be learned and used bilingually or trilingually by all the peoples of the earth.

Thirdly, it has been proposed to have national languages modified, in one fashion or another, to make them more accessible to foreign speakers, or even to their own.

It has been suggested that language mixtures, where two tongues are combined, be used. Last of the five proposals is the use of constructed tongues which may be either

a priori language or a posteriori language.

A priori language is one which has no connection with pre-existing tongues, but rather endeavors to link language with logical thought.⁴ Commercial codes used for economy in sending telegraphic messages are good examples, while on a more limited scale one may refer to musical notation, or to astronomical, chemical or other symbols. As applied to an international tongue, the great advantage of a priori system lies in its complete neutrality, since it favors or resembles none of the known languages.

One such system in use today are the universal graphic symbols known as Glyphs. Glyphs are the only universal graphic communications devices that are in public use. They are beginning to appear on highways, in world's fairs, at hotels and inns and on machines and appliances the world over.⁵ The advantages of glyphs are twofold-they don't require knowledge of a language, written or spoken. The message of the glyphs is unambiguous, simple, and understandable to anybody who has learned it. Glyphs create a direct and immediate impact and thus permit immediate response. This applies as well to those who know a language as to those who do not.

However glyphs will not suffice for our

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need for a universal language which will enable people from any part of the world to communicate with people from any other part. It has been suggested in recent years that the language of the deaf which conveys concepts independently of the words of a particular language does in action, in face-to-face communication what a written ideational language could do for speakers of different languages.⁶

A posteriori language is by definition one constructed on the analogy of existing tongues. This does not mean, however, that it may not have arbitrary features, particularly in the matter of grammar. All existing natural tongues display irregularities of one sort or another, which complicate the language for the learner and make language study a chore. The elimination of irregularities is a predominant feature of practically all constructed tongues. Aside from that, they may or may not borrow grammatical structure from the languages on which they draw. One might for example, copy the grammar of Spanish, at the same time regularizing it, to this extent. All nouns shall be masculine or feminine, with all masculine nouns ending in O and all feminine nouns ending in A. The plural of all nouns shall be formed by adding S to the singular. Now we have a language which, so far as nouns are concerned, is modeled on Spanish, yet displays regularity, which Spanish does not. If to this selection of grammatical rules we added a vocabulary drawn from Spanish, we have a posteriori language.

Esperanto is probably the best known of the posteriori languages devised to solve the communication problem. Invented in 1887 by Dr. L.L. Zamenhof, a Polish Jew who was a physician, it is a melange of European languages glued together by a very simple grammar. Unlike natural languages, which are laced with maddening irregularities, Esperanto is almost scientifically precise and consistent.⁷

Phonetic spelling is one of the most important features of Esperanto. Because every letter of the alphabet corresponds to one, and only one, sound and vice-versa, coupled with a simple syllabic arrangement, Esperanto is a harmonious tongue, easy to speak, read and spell. One drawback that has often been criticized is the use of accented letters of which there are six: c, g, h, j, s, and u. The main stream of criticism is that this complicates matters for

printers in countries speaking languages, such as English, which do not use accented letters.⁸

The Esperanto definite article is *la*, invariable like English "the." All nouns without exception, end in -o, all adjectives in -a, all adverbs in -e, all infinitives in -i. Nouns and adjectives are made plural by the addition of -j; an accusative form is provided by adding -n in both singular and plural: *la bona patro* and *la bonan patron* mean "The good father", the first as subject, the second as object; "the good fathers," is translated by *la bonaj patroj* and *la bonajn patrojn*. A verb, which ends in -i in the infinitive shifts to -as in the present, -is in the past, -os in the future, -us in the conditional, -u in the imperative (*ami*, "to love," *miamas*, "love"; *vi amis*, "you loved," *li amos*, "he will love"; *si amus*, "she would love," *amu*, "love")⁹ The vocabulary is a blend of Germanic and Latin-Romance, with plenty of Greek and Latin roots and very little in the way of other groups.

Points which favor Esperanto are that it is a completely regular language, based upon only 16 grammatical rules. It is claimed to be simple enough to be mastered by a person of moderate intelligence in just six months, yet flexible and powerful enough to handle the most difficult subtleties of legal jargon. It is composed of some 900 root words capable of expansion into a vocabulary of over 20,000 words, a vocabulary that by its very structure automatically simplified subject-heading and indexing.¹⁰ Esperanto is being used by hundreds of thousands of people all over the world in a great variety of fields. It is already of tremendous practical use and well worth an investment of time, effort and money. Those learning it acquire a key to the world, an instrument of great practical value, a treasure of cultural enrichment, and make at the same time a real contribution to the cause of international understanding and world peace.

However to say that a universal language, be it Esperanto or any other linguistic choice, will establish world unity and abolish wars forever is wishful thinking. History reminds us of the many civil wars among peoples speaking the same tongue. The most that we can expect is that the universal language will, through the removal of linguistic misunderstanding and through the creation of a healthy atmosphere wherein men regard one another as fellow human

beings endowed with the capacity of intelligible speech, effectively aid world peace.

A universal language may help to prevent such accidents as the drowning of a Japanese tourist in Tonga, who, warned of a strong undertow but unable to understand, went swimming in a dangerous area. The disasters of the *Titanic* and *Andrea Doria* both involved heavy loss of life due to language misunderstanding between passengers and crew.

But without going into the comparatively rare instances of the difference between life and death made by knowledge of another tongue, a world language would mean that any immigrant, tourist, or traveller coming from one country to another would be able to understand and be understood by those around them, to the evident comfort and general satisfaction of all concerned.

A world language would do away with necessity for publishing a magazine in seven languages, and conducting conferences in four or five different languages. We should no longer need elaborate schools for UN simultaneous interpreters and foreign service translators if we had a world tongue. In science and technology, a world language would enable man to make the entire world output directly and immediately available to everyone. Important discoveries and inventions would not have to wait for slow, difficult and often inexact translations. To attempt to cover all the advantages a universal language would bring, would be a separate paper in itself. However I would like to mention one last advantage of considerable importance. A universal language would help solve the internal problems in countries having large and numerous linguistic minorities, or in which many languages are at present official. In a country like Switzerland, with its official German, French and Italian, there are language difficulties, because not all the inhabitants speak all the official tongues of the country with equal fluency.

But there are far larger and more important national units than Switzerland to which the world language would be a distinct boon in internal affairs - nations like India, the Soviet Union, Indonesia, and the Philippines.

In India alone, there are over 225 languages and dialects, with 24 major tongues accounting for 96 percent of the population. Hindi is the official language,

(with English the trade language) but there has been violent opposition. There have been "walkouts" on the part of members of the Indian Parliament from Southern India in protest against the use of Hindi which they cannot understand. There have been violent language riots in many parts of the country. The Indian government, powerless to solve the language problems, has been endeavoring, with little success, to divide the country into provinces that would follow language lines, but there are often no clear-cut linguistic lines, and entire regions are in dispute. There is no doubt that a universal language would prove an inestimable blessing to India.

What the advent of a universal language would mean to India and similar areas can only be estimated. All the people, regardless of dialect, could use it among themselves without the haunting fear that one group would thereby obtain predominance over the others. It would also give these groups a means of communicating with the entire world and give them a means of quickly enriching their knowledge and information.

There remains one last problem. Would national languages be displaced by the international language and die out? Or would they exist side by side with the new language? I feel that, because the international language would be valid at all times and in all places, it would probably progress at the expense of national languages. As time goes on, there might be less use of national tongues and more use of the international language. Writers would prefer the new medium, which would give them access to world markets without the need of difficult and expensive translations. Dante admitted that the main reason that led him to write his *Divine Comedy* in Italian rather than in the Latin of his day was that he wished to reach a broader public.¹¹

The final outcome seems clear. The national languages of today will live on for centuries, but their use will tend to become more and more restricted. Ultimately, they will turn into cultural relics, like Greek and Latin of today. Is this good or bad? Consider that language is forever changing and that the English for the year 2500 will differ significantly from the English of today in any case. The people of tomorrow will evolve their own forms of life-political, economic and cultural. Many imperfections

of the present day are glaring. Why should we wish to impose them upon future generations? It is conceivable that some might not wish to pass on some of our political and economic institutions, but few indeed would be those who would not wish to pass on to them the advances we have made in the fields of science, medicine and technology, the tools to human happiness and progress. To these, let us add one more tool - a tongue that will permit all of our descendants regardless of color, race, nationality, or religion, to exchange thoughts freely.

"An international language is rapidly ceasing to be a luxury that can be put off into the future; it is becoming an immediate necessity. If we are wise, we shall anticipate the acute need of the future and provide for it, just as wise city planners make provisions for expansion of their growing city and the traffic problems that growth will involve."¹²

¹G.A. Connor, *Esperanto, the World Language*, 1966, p. 6.

²Ibid.

³Ibid.

⁴Mario Pei, *One Language for the World*, 1958, p. 141.

⁵M. Mead & R. Modley, "Communication Among All People, Everywhere." *Natural History* 77: (August 1968), p. 57.

⁶Ibid; p. 62

⁷Robert Reinhold, "900 Adherents Paroli in Esperanto," *New York Times* 27:1 (August 5, 1972); p. 16.

⁸G.A. Connor, *Esperanto, the World Interlanguage*, 1948; p. 28.

⁹Mario Pei, *One Language for the World*, 1958, p. 162.

¹⁰M.P. Wilson "Viewpoint" *Library Journal* 94:1599 (April 15, 1969) p. 1599.

¹¹Mario Pei, *One Language for the World*, 1958; p. 245.

¹²Mario Pei, *Need for International Language for All*, *Intellect* v. 101 (October 1972) p. 10.

CARRYING A GOOD THING TOO FAR

(continued from page 6)

from the fourth thousand: mist;

from the fifth thousand: earthly, devour;

from the sixth thousand: petty;

and from the eleventh thousand: terrestrial. Considered from this light, the last word above hardly seems suitable for a high school class. To add to the difficulty of the lesson, one of the least frequently used words, *devour*, has a clue definition which I could not find in any dictionary.

A reminder that one cannot always rely on these word counts of printed material for TESL purposes is in the words *nought* and *zero*, which are listed in the seventh and sixth thousandths, respectively, in the Thorndike and Lorge count. Of course *nought* is British and would not be used frequently by Americans, and *zero* is rarely spelled out in print. This instance demonstrates that caution and common sense must

be used in applying information from any frequency count.

After considering the dangers to be avoided in promoting a new teaching device, I would like to close with some positive advice: When you work up a lesson which really clicks, use it to the full advantage of your students. Then count to ten slowly and do your homework. Before you use it again, or suggest it to someone else, first check its fundamental philosophy and then make sure you have not been carried away by the method and so introduced new problems. Above all, determine the area in language teaching where your device does the most good and remember that you don't have a cure-all for the whole field of ESL. When your new idea passes these tests, you can join the ranks of those who have contributed to TESL.

TENSE USES IN ENGLISH

by Alice C. Pack

Uses of the Present Tense

Tense (present) + Verb

1. Perception or feelings of state or condition at moment of speaking.

Examples: *see, hope, hear, smell, feel, seem, look, want, remember, forget, prefer, appear.*

Sentence examples: He seems distressed.
I forget his name.
I want something to eat.
I remember the facts now.
The cheese smells bad.
The hamburger tastes delicious.

2. Ability.

Sentence examples: She swims very well.
I teach music.
Mary plays the piano, but John plays the trombone.
He jumps over three feet.

3. Customary or habitual action.

Time expression used with the action: *annually, always, every day, usually, rarely, often, frequently, occasionally, sometimes, never.*

Sentence examples: I often go to town.
John rarely comes to see me.
He usually attends the meetings.
He frequently swims at four o'clock.
He jogs every morning.
He comes all the time.

4. General truths.

Sentence examples: The administration sets the fees.
The planets revolve around the sun.
Water freezes at 0 Centigrade.
The moon circles around the earth.

5. Future time.

Examples: *leave, begin, arrive, come, start, get back, go play, sing, drive, speak.*

Use with future time expressions such as: *tomorrow, next week, next summer, Monday, Tuesday, etc., in January, in February etc., at 8 o'clock, before 6 o'clock.*

Sentence examples: We leave tomorrow
The train arrives at ten tonight.
James starts his trip next week.
Mary gets home in the morning.

Tense (present) + have + past participle + verb

1. **Activities which began in the past and continue up to the moment of speaking.**
(and will probably extend beyond this time.)
Examples: I have listened to the choir broadcast for years.
We have known these students for a long time.
I have always liked that girl.
She has been in Tonga since she left here.
2. **Activities that have existed or occurred sometime before the time of speaking, but the exact time is not always indicated.**
Frequency words such as *several times, often, at least, etc.* may indicate one or more times, but the exact time is not always indicated.
Examples: I have read that book several times.
She has written three essays.
This is one of the best assemblies I've ever attended.
She has been at CCH since last September.
I've been in ELI far too long.
3. **Activities completed a relatively short time before the time of speaking.**
"Just" is often used to indicate or emphasize this recent time.
Examples: I have just finished my last assignment.
They have just arrived.
I've eaten already.
They have just returned from a trip to the Orient.
We've heard the news.
I haven't heard from my parents recently.
4. **Activities completed in the past but closely connected with future or present events.**
Examples: I have received some money from my parents so I can buy some new clothes.
She has studied all day so she can relax now.
She's completed all her assignments, so she won't have to go to class tomorrow.
He has passed the test so he can go to Freshman English next semester.
5. **Used with questions or statements with yet or ever.**
(to indicate completion before the present time or to indicate recent completion.)
use never only with affirmative.
ever with either negative or affirmative.
Examples: Haven't you ever been there?
He has never been there.
Hasn't he ever met her?
He's never met her.
Has she come yet?
Have you had lunch yet?
Have you ever been there before?
Has he met her?

Tense (present) + be + -ing + Verb

1. Activities in actual progress at the moment of speaking.

Examples: Mary is watching television.
John is swimming in the pool.
The movie is playing now.
Mr. Jones is speaking now.
She is listening to the concert.

2. Activities that began a while before and will continue a while after the moment of speaking. (Not necessarily taking place at moment of speaking.)

Examples: I'm having a lot of trouble this semester.
The newspaper is presenting a series of John's articles.
He's doing biological research.
She is teaching a course in English at the college.
The office is collecting funds for the Aloha Center.
They're having a lovely courtship.

3. Future activities.

Often used with time expressions indicating future: *Tomorrow, next year, this evening, tonight, etc.*

Examples: We're going to the Mainland next summer.
I'm having Bill and Mary over on Sunday.
The girls in Dorm 1 are giving a party.
We're leaving for Europe next week.
I'm starting on a diet tomorrow.

Uses of the Past Tense

Tense (past) + Verb

1. Past activities that existed or occurred. A definite time in the past is often indicated by time expressions such as *yesterday, last week, ten years ago, etc.*

Examples: She went home an hour ago.
I thought I recognized her.
The baby cried during the performance.
We were sorry to hear of your illness.
I received a package from home yesterday.
Our team won the game.
Mary played the piano while Jane sang.

2. Past activities that existed or occurred over a period of time.

Examples: They played for several hours.
I was in Tonga during the interim semester.

He played rugby while he was in college.
 He was in the army from 1968 to 1971.
 I waited for her all afternoon.
 During the semester break, the students went home.

3. **Past activities that existed or occurred at intervals.**
 (Time expressions *just before*, and *already* are frequently used.)

Examples: She was usually late to the meetings.
 He visited his mother from time to time.
 She walked to school every day.
 I heard the chimes regularly.

Tense (past) + have + past participle + Verb

1. **Activities that occurred or existed before another activity in the past.**
 (Before is often used)
 Examples: I had just finished my assignment when Bill arrived.
 I had already finished my assignment when he invited me to complete my work in his office.
 I had done my work before the bell rang.
2. **Activities that occurred or existed before a point of time in the past.**
 Examples: I had never heard that story before. (Implies he had not heard it at a time in the past.)
 She had studied English before she entered college

Tense (past) + be + -ing

1. **Past activity in progress at a specific time in the past.**
 (Time expressions giving past point of time are generally used.)
 Examples: When I saw her last, she was walking toward the library.
 I was working in the lab when the tornado struck.
 It was raining last night.
 I was living in Samoa at that time.
2. **Past activities in progress at the time of another activity in the past.**
 While is frequently used to introduce the be + ing clauses.
 When is frequently used to introduce the other activity.
 Examples: Mary was sleeping and John was studying.
 (Notice the slight difference between this and Mary slept and John studied.)
 John was swimming while Joe was playing tennis.
3. **Past activities in progress at the same time.**
 Examples: I thought about her while I was walking home.
 The blowout occurred while we were passing another car.
 He was steering the boat when the wave turned it over.

ENGLISH IN KOREA

(continued from page 10)

indirect object, verb.¹³ Thus, the TESOL teacher must spend a lot of time on sentence word order. I have found that this is one of the most difficult things for Koreans to master.

It is the nature of the Koreans to never give up in face of hard work. The TESOL teacher will be amazed by their desire to learn and try. He could be discouraged by their lack of confidence, but through an effort on both sides, this can be overcome.

- ¹³ Anthony V. Vandesande and Francis Y.T. Park. *Myongdo's Korean '68 Part 1* (Seoul: Myongdo Institute, 1968) p. 67.

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PHONEMIC CHART

Summaries of English and Korean Phonemic Systems

English				Korean			
CONSONANTS							
p	t	k		p ^h	t ^h	k ^h	
b	d	g		b	d	g	
f	θ	s	ʃ		s ^h		
v	ð	z	ʒ				
			ç			ç	
			j			j	
m	n	ŋ		m	n	ŋ	
	l						
	r				r		
w	y			w	y		
VOWELS							
i		u		i	ĩ	u	
ɪ		u					
e	ə	o		ɛ	ö	o	
ɛ		ɔ					
æ				æ	a		
	a						
DIPHTHONGS							
aɪ	au	oi		ya	yɔ	yo	ua
				ie	ui	li	uae

Letter to the Editor

It was gratifying to see my *Easy Crossword Puzzles* and *More Easy Crossword Puzzles* referred to in the Fall 1973 *TESL Reporter* in the article by Kelly Harris, Jr. Crossword puzzles can certainly be used in many ways in teaching English, and many people have developed methods which tie in with their teaching methods, but I do object when my puzzles are called "negative" and "detrimental."

Harris' first objection is that I did not provide a list of words for the students to work from. I am sorry that he does not have a copy of Thorndike and Lorge, *The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words* (New York, 1944), but I am sure the University of Hawaii Library could supply him with a copy. Even that is not necessary, however, since any frequency count that turns up a list of the 500 most frequently used words will of necessity produce a nearly identical list. A Michael West list would do. Of course any frequency count applies only to the materials counted, and may not be suitable for different application, such as an ESL class, but it is almost impossible to know a little English without knowing the 500 most frequently used words. The students for whom my puzzles were developed were foreign students at the Universities of Miami and Houston who already had recognition vocabularies of several thousand words and had production vocabularies of well over 500 words. There-

fore I did not consider lists necessary as aids to the students' recall and active practice of their vocabularies. Any observation of teams of three or four students discussing the possible solutions to the clues will prove that crossword puzzles do stimulate language use in a real situation.

The process of language learning involves mastering many language skills simultaneously. (See Bradford Arthur, *Teaching English to Speakers of English*, New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1973, p. 24) Making exercises based on one or two aspects of the language may be very handy for the teacher, but the students, if they are learning anything, will be learning several skills simultaneously. Therefore puzzles which ask not only for synonyms and antonyms, but also for morphological function words such as prepositions and conjunctions are only aiding the natural language learning process, and can in no way be labeled "detrimental."

Many thanks to you, Mrs. Pack, for editing your stimulating magazine and keeping us in *TESL* informed of theories and applications useful to the daily practice of our profession.

Sincerely yours,

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